CALIFORNIA STATE SERIES.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

SCHOOL TEXT BOOKS.

Caroline Ellsworth.

Subject. The senator speaks.

Independently. Speaks on, O Senator.

" by pleonasm. The senator,
what did he say?

Absolute before a participle - The
senator speaking, I was silent.

Absolute after a participial noun -
His being senator, is honorable

In apposition - Mr Clay, the
senator, is speaking.

After an intransitive verb - Mr. Clay
was a senator.

After an intransitive participle -
Mr. Clay, being a senator
is beloved.

Possessive Case

1. Governed by a noun: I saw the Senator's house
2. In apposition: I heard Mr. [illegible] the senator's speech

Objective Case.

Object of a transitive verb: I know the senator.

Object of a transitive participle. Benton was opposing the senator.

Obj. of a prep. All speaks well of the senator

In apposition. I heard Mr. Clay the senator speaking.

after a intransitive verb, I know Mr Clay, the senator

after an intransitive participle I visited Mr. Clay being a senator.

CALIFORNIA STATE SERIES OF SCHOOL TEXT-BOOKS.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

This book is designed to aid in giving the pupil a culture that will enable him to understand, appreciate, and therefore enjoy, good language, and chiefly in this way, to lead him to acquire the habit of using good language himself.

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ALONZO REED *and* BRAINERD KELLOGG,

in 1868, 1877, 1878, 1885, and 1887.

INTRODUCTION.

Part I. of this book is made to be used in the schools of this State, with pupils of from 11 to 14 years of age—the class that is about concluding the Second Reader, of the State Series.

It is designed to give the pupil aid in clearly understanding the English sentence, and at the same time the ability to write sentences with ease and accuracy.

Believing that the sentence is the language-unit, and that therefore it is more interesting as well as more profitable to begin with the study of sentences, the subject has been thus introduced. An effort has been made to introduce technical grammar with very little technicality.

In the grammar school there is an abundance of time for the study of language as here presented. The work should never be crowded. On the contrary, to secure all the culture there is in the study of language, it must be taken slowly, and if so studied, instead of being uninteresting and distasteful, the subject will increase in interest from day to day.

It is fully understood that the child must first *have* ideas and thoughts before he can *express* them, and that much of the work of the school must be devoted to leading him to observe, judge, and think for himself. But it is also true that one's language reacts upon his thoughts. While, in one sense, "we speak as we think," there is another sense in which "we think as we speak." Accuracy of language begets accuracy of thought, and coarse or slovenly language may be both the cause and the result of the same kind of thought. The mastery of a new word, or of a new form of expression, means the conception of a new idea, or a new thought or shade of thought.

It is said, "Give a child something to say, and he will find a way in which to say it." This is probably true. He will find *a* way, but to find an *acceptable* way, or the *best* way, he needs guidance and culture. These a book on Grammar should give.

By a special arrangement made with Messrs. Reed and Kellogg, authors of Reed and Kellogg's "Graded Lessons in English" and "Higher Lessons in English," we are permitted to use the system of diagraming owned exclusively by them—a system that commends itself for its simplicity and expressiveness. We are confident that this will be acceptable to the teachers of the State, as the Reed and Kellogg Grammars are so widely used and are giving such excellent satisfaction.

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CALIFORNIA SERIES.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Lesson 1.

Ways of Grouping Words.

When we wish to express our thoughts, either by speaking or writing, we use **words.** If we know how to use words well, we can express our thoughts in a variety of ways, and in each so as to be clearly understood. This expression of thoughts by the use of words is called **Language.** The study of **Grammar** is designed to teach us: (1) to understand language, and (2) to use it well.

By examining the following groups of words, we shall find that they are put together in four quite different ways:

1. Little fast a under garden saw.
2. Running down the street.
3. When the boy came home.
4. Henry lost his ball.

In the first, although each word, alone, means something, the words taken together mean nothing.

In the second, there is a meaning, but the thought is not fully expressed.

In the third, there is a thought expressed, but it does not seem complete.

In the fourth, the thought is fully expressed.

Examine the following groups of words, comparing them with the four examples given above, and arrange them in four divisions, writing those like the first example in one division; those like the second example in another, and so on:

1. Jennie fed her birds. 2. (When) the hunter saw the fire. 3. In that little cup. 4. The farmer is tired. 5. Letter long a writing interesting. 6. A poor man once had a parrot. 7. (Which) the child found. 8. To read aloud well. 9. As a lion was lying asleep. 10. The tall oak was once a small acorn. 11. Speaking very kindly. 12. An old pine tree stood by the house. 13. (While) the wind is blowing. 14. Not were kind these always men. 15. To reach home soon. 16. The two base ball clubs played a game. 17. (If) James is a brave boy. 18. (After) the men had eaten supper. 19. Little Frank has been playing with Rover. 20. Under the spreading branches. 21. The high hills rose on all sides. 22. Overhead we flying which saw swiftly. 23. Three sisters once lived here. 24. Waving his arms and shouting aloud. 25. The men were catching fish. 26. Flying through the air.

Note.—*Where the parenthesis is used, note the difference between the group of words with and without the inclosed word.*

Lesson 2.

Composition Exercises:

a. Arrange the words in number 5, so as to form a group under example *two*.

b. Arrange the words in number 14, so as to form a group under example *four*.

c. Arrange the words in number 22, so as to form a group under example *three*.

d. Select a part of number 12 that is a group under example *two*.

e. Write three examples each, like *two*, *three*, and *four*.

Lesson 3.

Sentence, Clause, and Phrase.

A group of words arranged like those in example *four*, Lesson 1, is called a **Sentence**; like those in example *three* is called a **Clause**; and like those in example *two* is called a **Phrase**.

As the groups like example *one* do not express thoughts, they do not belong to the study of language, and have no general name.

Definition.

A **Sentence** is a complete statement, a question, or a command.

When a sentence contains two or more statements, questions, or commands, each of these is called a **Clause.**

Notice that a *phrase* alone can not make a statement, ask a question, or express a command.

a. Classify the following as sentences, clauses, or phrases:

1. Unless the weather is pleasant. 2. A few days ago. 3. Carl and Andrew are spinning their tops. 4. That he has no money. 5. Walking along the street. 6. The ships coming in. 7. The ships are coming in. 8. In the woods. 9. While we were in the woods. 10. The sun set while we were in the woods. 11. Though we must start to-morrow. 12. Of credit and renown. 13. John Gilpin was a citizen of credit and renown. 14. A family of crows lived in an old pine tree. 15. Where he once hunted the deer. 16. Just in time. 17. Which could be seen through the fog. 18. Not far away. 19. Not far away rose three high peaks which could be seen through the fog. 20. Here is a loaf of bread. 21. To see my brother daily. 22. For he had sprained his ankle. 23. When the horse grows old. 24. Sugar is imported from the Sandwich Islands. 25. A new steamer has been built. 26. In twenty minutes. 27. I will start.

b. From the preceding select seven clauses which will become sentences when the first word in each is dropped.

c. Select four phrases that form parts of clauses or sentences.

d. Select five phrases, five clauses, and five sentences from the last lesson that you read in your Reader.

Lesson 4.

SENTENCE, CLAUSE, AND PHRASE.

Composition Exercise:

a. Copy four clauses from the list in Lesson 3, adding enough words to form a sentence of each.

b. Copy four phrases, adding enough words to form a sentence of each.

c. Write four sentences, four clauses, and four phrases, of your own composition.

Lesson 5.

KINDS OF SENTENCES.

Examine the four examples given below, and observe the change in thought, and in the way the thought is expressed:

Susan plays.	Susan, play.
Does Susan play?	How Susan plays.

The first sentence states, or declares; the second asks a question; the third commands; the fourth exclaims and also declares.

Exercise:

In the same way, classify the following sentences:

1. Where is the hunter going? 2. What a happy boy he is! 3. Boys, finish your work. 4. What is the largest river in South America? 5. Name the largest river in South America. 6. The Amazon is the largest river in South America. 7. The train has left the station. 8. The train has not left the station. 9. How fast the horse runs! 10. When will your brother return? 11. Neither a lender nor a borrower be. 12. Polly, put the kettle on.

declarative

Definitions.

A sentence that states, or declares, is called a *Declarative* sentence.

A sentence that asks a question, or interrogates, is called an *Interrogative* sentence.

A sentence that commands, is called an *Imperative* sentence.

When any one of the above is used to express strong or sudden feeling, it becomes an *Exclamatory* sentence.

A declarative sentence may become exclamatory; as, We are lost!

An interrogative sentence may become exclamatory; as, What! shall we desert our friends!

An imperative sentence may become exclamatory; as, Run! run for your lives!

By comparing numbers *seven* and *eight* of the above sentences, you will see that a declarative sentence may declare either by affirming, as in number seven, or by denying, as in number eight.

REMARK.—*A sentence that affirms is called an* **affirmative** *sentence. A sentence that denies is called a* **negative** *sentence. Interrogative or imperative sentences may have the negative form; as,* Did you **not** spend the money? Do **not** leave the room.

Lesson 6.

KINDS OF SENTENCES.

Exercise:

a. Classify the following sentences as Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, or Exclamatory:

1. Boys, do not throw stones at that poor cow. 2. Joseph was the son of Jacob. 3. Alas, we are left alone! 4. Did you ever hear of the emperor Nero? 5. I have found a place where the sun shines. 6. How anxious was the poor sailor then! 7. Are you not ready yet, Thomas? 8. A little old woman went slowly down the street. 9. He asked when we would be ready to go. 10. When shall you be ready to go? 11. Love your enemies. 12. Merrily goes the swing, under the old oak tree. 13. How sweet the answer Echo makes to music at night. 14. What have you been searching for? 15. What a good time we have had!

b. Find in your Reader, four Declarative sentences; four Imperative; four Interrogative; and four Exclamatory.

Lesson 7.

COMPOSITION—KINDS OF SENTENCES.

[**To the Teacher.**—This lesson may be divided into sections according to the ability of the class. In all written work hereafter the pupil should be held responsible for the following directions.]

1. Begin every sentence with a capital letter.

2. Put a period at the end of each declarative sentence and each imperative sentence.

3. Put an interrogation point at the close of each interrogative sentence.

4. Put an exclamation point at the close of each exclamatory sentence.

5. When the name or the title of the person addressed is used simply to call his attention or to point out the person meant, it is separated from the rest of the sentence by the comma; thus,

"Frank, come and help us." "Harry, you and Louis may get some water." "I think, sir, that you are mistaken."

Exercises:

a. Compose and write four declarative sentences; four imperative; four interrogative; and four exclamatory, observing carefully the directions given for punctuation.

b. Write three declarative sentences and change them, first, to interrogative; second, to imperative; third, to exclamatory.

c. If the three declarative sentences just written are affirmative, change them to negative; if negative, change them to affirmative.

d. Write an interrogative sentence in the negative form.

e. Write an imperative sentence in the negative form.

f. Change number *six* in Lesson 6 to an interrogative sentence.

g. Change number *twelve* to an interrogative sentence.

h. Change number *eight* to an interrogative sentence.

i. Change number *fifteen* to a declarative sentence.

Lesson 8.

The Predicate.

Examine closely the sentences and clauses already given you to classify, and you will find, in each, one or more words that make the assertion.

Thus, in the sentence, *Henry lost his ball*, LOST is the

asserting word; in the clause, *When the boy came home*, CAME is the asserting word; in the sentence, *The farmer is tired*, IS is the asserting word.

The asserting word in the following sentences is italicized:

1. Charles *lives* on a farm.
2. I *see* ten geese.
3. The child *sings* for joy.
4. The horses *are* in the stable.
5. Men often *hunt* with dogs.

Exercise:

Find all the asserting words in the examples given in Lesson 3.

The word that asserts is the most important word in a sentence or a clause; for, without it, neither a sentence nor a clause can be formed; while some sentences, as

Go; *Come;* *March;*

are complete without any other word expressed.

If you have looked carefully through the examples in Lesson 3, you have discovered that every *sentence* and every *clause* contains an asserting word, but that a *phrase* does not contain any such word.

The asserting word has various names. It is called the **Word-Predicate, Grammatical Predicate,** or **Verb** (*predicate* meaning *that which states*, and *verb* meaning merely **the** *word*, so called because it is the chief word).

The verb with all the words that modify its meaning is called the **Entire Predicate,** or the **Logical Predicate.**

Thus, in the sentences above, the entire predicates are, *lives on a farm; see ten geese; sings for joy; are in the stable; often hunt with dogs;* while the word-predicates are, *lives, see, sings, are, hunt.*

REMARK.—*Words joined to other words to modify or limit their meaning are called* **adjuncts.** *The word* **adjunct** *means* **joined to.**

Lesson 9.

THE PREDICATE.

Exercise:

In the examples given in Lessons 3 and 5, give the *entire predicate* of each clause or sentence, then select the *word-predicate.*

As you have seen in the examples already studied, the word-predicate, or verb, is sometimes made up of two or more words of nearly equal importance.

Examples:

1. A lion *was lying* asleep. 2. The wind *is blowing.* 3. The men *had eaten* supper. 4. Little Frank *has been playing* with Rover. 5. The men *were catching* fish. 6. *Do* not *go* too near. 7. *May* I *go* to school? 8. The sun *has* just *set.* 9. The poor man *has lost* his hat. 10. The river *can* not *be seen.*

Lesson 10.

COMPOSITION EXERCISE—THE PREDICATE.

a. Write sentences, in which the following shall be used as *word-predicates*, making six declarative sentences, six interrogative, four imperative, and four exclamatory, using the required predicates in any order that you choose:

Look, lost, sent, builds, swam, knew, escaped, have met, will send, were dismissed, had been writing, has suffered, will raise, was seen, has hurt, came, were, grow, took, are.

b. Compose five sentences in which the word-predicate shall be made up of two or more words, and underline the words of which it is formed.

c. Select the word-predicates from your last reading lesson.

[**Note to Teacher.**— These composition exercises, though included in one lesson, should occupy from four to six recitations.]

Lesson 11.

The Subject.

Examine again the sentences and clauses in which you have selected the predicates, and you will find in each another very important word. This word names the person or the thing about which something is asserted. Thus, in the sentence, *Henry lost his ball*, HENRY is the name of the person about whom the predicate, *lost his ball*, makes an assertion.

We may change the sentence, and write it, *The ball was lost by Henry.*

In this sentence, BALL is the name of the thing about which the predicate, *was lost by Henry*, makes an assertion.

In the clause, *while the wind is blowing*, WIND is the name of the thing about which the predicate, *is blowing*, makes an assertion.

The name of the person or thing about which the predicate asserts something, is called the **Word-Subject** or the **Grammatical Subject.**

The Word-Subject, with all its adjuncts, is called the **Entire Subject** or the **Logical Subject.**

In the following examples, one line is drawn under the *entire subject*, and two lines under the *word-subject.*

Examples:

1. An hour soon passes.
2. This man is shooting ducks.
3. The Indian's hut is made of bark.
4. The fence has been broken by the cows.
5. A little robin has built her nest in this tree.

Exercise:

a. Rewrite number *two*, expressing the same thought, but making *ducks* the subject; number *three*, making *Indian* the subject; number *three* again, making *bark* the subject;

number *four*, making *cows* the subject; number *five*, making *nest* the subject.

b. Give the entire subject, then the word subject, of the sentences and clauses used as examples in Lessons 1 and 3.

Lesson 12.

Noun Subjects and Pronoun Subjects.

The word-subject is generally a name, or *noun* (*noun* meaning *name*). In some sentences, as numbers *four*, *nine*, *eleven*, and some others, in Lesson 3, the word-subject is not a noun, but is a *word used instead of a noun.* Such a word is called a **Pronoun.**

Examples:

1. Here *we* are. 2. *He* is always cheerful. 3. *I* think *they* are going.

Exercise:

a. Write in one column all the noun subjects, and in another the pronoun subjects in the sentences given in Lesson 3.

b. Write four sentences with noun subjects and four with pronoun subjects.

Lesson 13.

Phrase Subjects and Clause Subjects.

Exercise:

After selecting the predicate in each of the following sentences, carefully examine the subject:

1. *To write well* is a valuable accomplishment.
2. *Sliding on the ice* made him tired.
3. *To work with a will* is a remedy for sadness.

1. *Where he went* is not known.
2. *That we shall succeed* is certain.
3. *Where are you going?* is the question.

The subject of each of the first three of the preceding

sentences is a phrase. The subject of each of the next three is a clause.

It will be seen, therefore, that the subject of a sentence may be a *noun*, a *pronoun*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

REMARK.—*As nouns are, in a more general way, called substantives; words, phrases, or clauses used as nouns are substantive in office.*

Exercise:

a. Copy the following sentences, then draw two lines under each entire predicate, and one line under each entire subject.

b. Select the word-predicate, and state whether the subject is a noun, a pronoun, a phrase, or a clause.

1. Amidst the storms they sang. 2. I do not know where he is. 3. Why he returned was not told. 4. This is the cat that killed the rat. 5. To learn a language well is difficult. 6. To plan well is of great importance. 7. There eternal Summer dwells. 8. To see you happy satisfies me. 9. That I have helped you, is proof of my friendship. 10. Around the fire, one wintry night, the farmer's rosy children sat.

c. Write three sentences with phrase subjects, and three with clause subjects, underlining as directed above.

Lesson 14.

POSITION OF THE SUBJECT.

In most of the examples studied so far, the subject is placed *before* the predicate. In some sentences, however, the subject is placed *after* the predicate, and in some sentences it is placed between the words that form the predicate.

Examples:

1. Here is the *man*. (After.) 2. There sat the *king*. 3. Do *you* see that tree? (Between.) 4. Loud blew the *wind*. 5. Has the *money* been found?

In an imperative sentence, and often in an interrogative sentence, the name of the person addressed, although it at

first seems to be the subject, is used simply to point out the person meant, or to call his attention; and because it has no connection with the other words in the sentence, it is set off by the comma. The subject of an imperative sentence is always *you*, *ye*, or *thou*, and is generally understood but not expressed.

Exercise:

a. Select first the entire predicate, then the entire subject in each of the following sentences. Give reasons for the marks of punctuation:

1. Where have you been? 2. Wind the clock. 3. Found he the peace he sought? 4. Friends, give me your hands. 5. Ill fares the land. 6. Lucy, where have you been?

b. Select the entire subject, then the word-subject, in each of the sentences given as examples in Lessons 5 and 6.

c. Write five sentences in which the subject shall be placed after the predicate or between the words that form the predicate, underlining the predicate, or its parts, twice, and the subject once.

Lesson 15.

Compound Subjects and Compound Predicates.

Exercise:

Select the word-predicates and the word-subjects in the following:

1. The horse jumped and ran. 2. I ate my breakfast and started for school. 3. The children laughed, danced, and shouted. 4. Jennie and Lucy are feeding their pets. 5. The cows, the horses, and the chickens have been fed. 6. The old hen and her brood started for the water. 7. William and his father dug the holes and set the posts. 8. Lizzie, Nellie, and Frank picked the peas and shelled them for dinner.

From these sentences it will be seen:

1. That two or more predicates may have the same sub-

ject, as in numbers *one*, *two*, and *three;* in this case, the predicate is **compound.**

2. That one predicate may have two or more subjects, as in numbers *four*, *five*, and *six;* in this case, the subject is **compound.**

3. That two or more predicates may have two or more subjects, as in numbers *seven* and *eight;* in this case, the subject and the predicate are both **compound.**

REMARK.—*Such sentences are classified as simple sentences, (1) with a compound subject, or (2) a compound predicate, or (3) with both.*

Direction for Punctuation.—When a compound subject or a compound predicate is made up of more than two parts, the parts should be separated by the comma; as,

The *trees*, the *bushes*, the *fences*, and the *houses* were covered with snow.

We *encamped* by the river, *pitched* our tent, and prepared our evening *meal.*

Composition Exercise:

Form sentences, using the following compound subjects and compound predicates:

Apples, pears, peaches. Books, papers, magazines.
Lincoln, Grant, Garfield. Bellows, anvil, hammer, iron.
Mother, father, sisters, brothers.

Were watching, were working, were waiting. Go, tell, come.
Will study, will learn, will improve. Said, started.
Are written, are published.

Lesson 16.

PREDICATE AND SUBJECT.

Exercise:

Select the word-predicates in the following stories, and give the word-subject of each predicate:

Two travelers were going along a dangerous road, and they promised to stand by one another to the last. By-and-by they entered a wood, and were alarmed at seeing a huge bear coming in their direc-

tion at full speed. The younger man quickly climbed a tree, and left his companion to shift for himself. The other man fell and lay perfectly still, as if dead. Soon the savage beast came up, sniffed all around, and as the man lay breathless, it walked away, supposing him to be dead, and left him unharmed. The younger man now descended from the tree where he had been watching, and jestingly asked, "What did the bear whisper in your ear?" "He told me," replied the other, "never again to believe or trust a man like you."

A horse was drawing a heavy load of timber along one of the crowded thoroughfares of a large city, lately, and being unable, with its heavy load, to turn quick enough to please its driver, he, in a fit of bad temper, began to beat it severely. This only made the animal stupid, and at last it stood quite still, and refused to move another step. He whipped the horse again and again, but it only reared and kicked, and then again stubbornly stood still. A passer-by, who knew the horse well, and knew how to treat it, went up to its head, spoke gently to the trembling animal, patted it on the neck, and then said, "Come along, Bob." The horse looked at him with its great eyes, as much as to say, "I would do anything for you, because you speak kindly to me." Then it exerted all its great strength, and the heavy load was once more moving along the street.

A poor old blind soldier used to earn a scanty living by playing his violin every night in one of the public gardens in Vienna. His little dog sat beside him, holding its master's hat for the few coppers that passers-by occasionally dropped in. One night the old man was in great trouble. No one stopped to listen to his music, and he had not received a single coin that day. Hungry and weary and grieved, the poor soldier at last fairly broke down and wept. A stranger, seeing his distress, came up to him, put a coin in the hat, and said kindly, "Lend me your violin, and I will play while you collect." He tuned the fiddle carefully, and then played so well that a great crowd soon gathered to listen. The hat quickly filled, not with copper only, but with silver, also. The stranger, who so nobly came to the help of a poor, broken-down soldier, was one of the finest violin players in the world. The old man wept tears of joy as he blessed his benefactor, and as the latter walked away the crowd heartily cheered him for his kindness.

Lesson 17.

Analysis of Sentences.

To analyze a sentence is to separate it into its parts and to give the office of each part.

Exercise:

Classify the following sentences, as in Lesson 5; give the entire predicate, the word-predicate, and the entire subject of each; state whether the subject is a noun, a pronoun, a phrase, or a clause.

Note.—*In the analysis of a sentence, it is better to select the predicate first.*

MODELS:

1. "The general sent a message."

A declarative sentence, because it contains a statement; Entire predicate—*sent a message;* Word-predicate—*sent;* Entire subject—*the general;* Word-subject—*general*—a noun.

2. "Is climbing the mountain difficult?"

An interrogative sentence, because it asks a question; Entire predicate—*is difficult;* Word-predicate—*is;* Subject—*climbing the mountain*—a phrase.

1. I met a little cottage girl. 2. Where did you find that pretty stone? 3. Look at me. (Subject not expressed) 4. Which book did you ask for? 5. Go thy way for this time. 6. Did you and May go to school yesterday? 7. The wizard opened a drawer and took from it a lovely necklace. 8. What a delightful time you must have had! 9. Come in, poor child, and warm yourself. 10. Eating unripe fruit will make you sick. 11. The doctor had seldom seen a more patient child. 12. That a mistake had been made, was quite evident. 13. "We shall see," was his only answer. 14. Children, can we not learn something from this story? 15. In his arm-chair sits dear old grandpa. 16. The parrot dragged the doll down and hid it. 17. Where the robber concealed his treasures, has never been discovered. 18. To leap down upon the pavement below would be instant death.

19. A little word in kindness spoken,
A motion, or a tear,
Has often healed the heart that's broken,
And made a friend sincere.

20. Under a spreading chestnut tree, the village smithy stands.

Lesson 18.

COMPOSITION IN REVIEW.

1. Write the words *I* and *O* as capitals.
2. Begin with a capital, (a) every sentence, (b) every

particular name of a person or a place, (c) all names of the Deity.

Look in your Readers for examples of each.

Exercises:

a. Write a declarative sentence with a compound predicate.

b. Write an interrogative sentence with a compound subject.

c. Write an exclamatory sentence with a pronoun as the subject.

d. Write a declarative sentence with a clause as the subject.

e. Write a declarative sentence with a compound predicate, and with a compound subject made up of two pronouns.

f. Write a declarative sentence with a phrase as the subject.

g. Write an imperative sentence with a compound predicate consisting of three verbs.

h. Write an interrogative sentence with a phrase as the subject.

i. Write an affirmative sentence.

j. Write a negative sentence.

Lesson 19.

The Complement.

In some of the sentences already studied, the word-predicate and the subject together do not make the sense complete. One of the other words seems to be needed. Thus, *John lost*, *James is*, *men were*, *your answer was*, are incomplete in sense; but when we add something to each, and say, *John lost his ball*, *James is a brave youth*, *men were catching fish*, *your answer was right*, the meaning of each is complete. These additional words are called **complements**, because they *complete* the sense of the predicate.

Remark.—*Verbs requiring complements are called* **incomplete** *verbs.*

The Object Complement.

Examine the complement of the predicate in the following sentences from Lessons 1 and 3:

1. Jennie fed her bird. 2. The hunter saw the fire. 3. The two baseball clubs played a game. 4. The men had eaten supper. 5. Carl and Andrew are spinning their tops. 6. He once hunted the deer. 7. He had sprained his ankle.

[**Note to Teacher.**—In the first three sentences, the object is underlined. In the other sentences let the pupil find it for himself.]

In each of these sentences, the complement is a noun, naming something upon which the action asserted by the predicate is performed; thus, *bird* is the name of the animal that Jennie *fed; fire* is the name of the thing that the hunter *saw*, etc.

Such a complement is called an **Object complement,** or **Object.**

Exercise:

a. In the following sentences, select the verbs that have objects, and give the object of each:

1. Thomas built this house. 2. I saw a man by the roadside. 3. The birds found shelter in a large oak tree. 4. With our money we bought books. 5. Choose your friend with care. 6. Frank lit the fire, and his sister cooked the dinner. 7. Joseph had a coat of many colors. 8. Select from this basket the largest apple. 9. Do you remember the man who built this house? 10. But when he caught the measure wild, the old man raised his head and smiled.

b. Use the verbs in the first column in sentences, selecting, from the second column, a suitable object for each verb.

read	vase
ate	book
are driving	baby
burn	picture
gave	friends
has broken	breakfast
hold	oxen
am drawing	story
forsook	table
made	dress

Lesson 20.

THE OBJECT COMPLEMENT.

Examine the objects in the following sentences:

1. My friend surprised *me.* 2. We expect *him* to-morrow. 3. Did the stick strike *you?* 4. The President expects *to be there.* 5. Fred enjoys *sliding on the ice.* 6. Your brother hopes *to see you.* 7. Your brother hopes *that he shall see you.* 8. I do not know *when we shall return.* 9. The teacher said, "*Study your lesson.*"

In the first three sentences, the object is a *pronoun;* in the next three, the object is a *phrase;* in the last three, the object is a *clause.* It will be seen, then, that the object, like the subject, is either a noun, a pronoun, or one or more words used as a noun. In other words, the object is always *substantive* in office.

A verb may have two or more objects; as,

10. My mother *called* **Lucy** and **me.** 11. The horse *eats* **hay, oats,** and **barley.** 12. He *intends* **to come here to-day** and **to go there to-morrow.**

Two or more verbs may have the same object; as,

13. The merchant *buys* and *sells* country **produce.** 14. We *picked, prepared,* and *ate* the **fruit.**

Two or more verbs may have two or more objects; as,

15. We *fought* and *conquered* our **enemies** and our **oppressors.** 16. I *found* and *rescued* my **books,** my **pictures,** and my **papers.**

Remark.—*A verb having an object complement is called a* **Transitive Verb.**

Exercise:

In the stories in Lesson 16 select the transitive verbs, and tell whether their objects are nouns or pronouns.

Lesson 21.

THE OBJECT COMPLEMENT.

Exercises:

a. In the following sentences select the verbs that have

objects, and state whether the object is a noun, a pronoun, a phrase, or a clause:

1. He took no notice, but looked as if he had not heard the words. 2. The men who do the greatest things do them by steady, unremitting toil. 3. I hope to find my friend much better. 4. He knows where we are going. 5. The janitor forgot to ring the bell. 6. I had never before seen such swimming. 7. You know that I do not want money. 8. "What can be the matter?" exclaimed Mr. Brown. 9. The warrior bowed his crested head and tamed his heart of fire. 10. He appointed the moon for seasons; the sun knoweth his going down.

b. Select and classify the objects in the first four paragraphs of your last reading lesson.

Lesson 22.

Analysis of Sentences.

Exercise:

Classify the following sentences as in Lesson 17; give the predicate, the subject, and the object in each sentence and clause, and state whether the subjects and objects are nouns, pronouns, phrases, or clauses:

Model:

"I do not know where my brother put the book."

This is a declarative sentence, containing two statements: Entire predicate—*do not know where my brother put the book;* Word-predicate—*do know;* Subject—*I,* a pronoun; Object—*where my brother put the book,* a clause; Entire predicate of object clause—*put the book where;* Word-predicate—*put;* Entire subject of object clause—*my brother;* Word-subject—*brother,* a noun; Object—*book,* a noun.

1. Galileo taught that the earth revolves. 2. The owl kills mice and eats them. 3. Regulus lost his life, but kept his word. 4. Did you have a good time? 5. "Good morning," said the young frog. 6. Columbus thought he had reached an island near Asia. 7. Ladies and gentlemen, you will now elect your officers. 8 That we had succeeded, pleased and encouraged him. 9. Jack marched up, took the rope in his teeth, and rang the bell again.

10. Go ring the bells, and fire the guns,
And fling the starry banner out.

11. What a pleasant picture of an evening home scene the poet Cowper draws! 12. The Spaniards now resolved to make their way to Cuba. 13. Now, I propose that we build a wharf. 14. What do you say, lads? Shall we do it?

15. With slow tread and still tread,
He scans the tented line,
And he counts the battery guns
By the gaunt and shadowy pine.

Lesson 23.

Composition in Review.

After writing the following sentences, underline the entire predicate *twice* and the entire subject *once;* put the objects in *brackets*, and indicate the word-predicate by a dagger (†), and word, phrase, or clause subject, by a double dagger (‡).

Example:

‡ ‡ † †
When our friends return, Mary and I will invite [them] to supper.

Exercises:

a. Write a declarative sentence in which the subject is a pronoun and the object a phrase.

b. Write an interrogative sentence in which there is a compound predicate and a noun object.

c. Write an exclamatory sentence in which both the subject and the object are nouns.

d. Write a declarative sentence in which the subject is a pronoun, and the object a phrase.

e. Write a declarative sentence in which the subject is a clause, and the object a pronoun.

f. Write an imperative sentence in which the object is a phrase.

g. Write a sentence which shall have a noun as the subject and a noun as the object.

h. Write an interrogative sentence in which the object is a clause.

i. Write an interrogative sentence in which the subject is a noun and the predicate has two objects.

j. Answer the question that you have just made by a negative sentence in which the subject is a pronoun.

Lesson 24.

The Attribute Complement.

We will now return to the phrases and sentences given in Lessons 1 and 3, and examine some of those that have another kind of complement.

1. The farmer is *tired.* 2. Unless the weather is *pleasant.* 3. When the horse grows *old.*

1. The tall oak was once a small *acorn.* 2. If James is a brave *boy.* 3. John Gilpin was a *citizen.*

In the first three, the complement is a word *describing* the subject; that is, giving some quality of the real thing which the subject names; thus,

pleasant weather; *tired* farmer; *old* horse.

In the next three, the complement is a noun giving another name to, or *identifying*, the subject.

Such complements as the above are called **attributes** of the *subject*, because they either *describe* or *identify* the subject.

Remark.—*An attribute is any property, or quality, of the person or thing.*

Exercise:

Select the attributes in the following sentences, and in the sentences of Lessons 5 and 6.

1. Harold is industrious. 2. This child's face is interesting. 3. Is he brave? 4. Be brave, children. (Notice the use of the word children.) 5. He is a man. 6. Is he a soldier?

Lesson 25.

THE ATTRIBUTE COMPLEMENT.

Exercise:

a. Give the predicate and the subject of each of the following sentences, and examine carefully the office and form of the italicized attributes:

1. The children are *happy*. 2. Henry is *in trouble*. (= *troubled*) 3. The patient seems *to be better*. 4. Everything shall be *as you wish*. 5. This rose is *beautiful*. 6. The doctor is *at work*. (= *working*)

The above attributes all *describe* the subjects, but have different forms. In numbers *one* and *five*, the attribute is a WORD describing the subject; in *two*, *three*, and *six*, the attribute is a PHRASE describing the subject; in *four*, the attribute is a CLAUSE describing the subject.

b. In the same manner, examine the following sentences:

1. It is *she*. 2. Our amusement was *playing croquet*. 3. The question is, *what to do with it*. 4. The fact is, *he stole the money*. 5. James is my *brother*. 6. My hope was, *that we should arrive before sunset*. 7. The trouble is *to answer your question*. 8. My wish is, *that you should dine with me*.

In these sentences, each attribute *identifies* the subject, that is, tells who or what the subject is. In numbers *one* and *five*, the attribute is a WORD identifying the subject; in numbers *two*, *three*, and *seven*, the attribute is a PHRASE identifying the subject: in numbers *four*, *six*, and *eight*, the attribute is a CLAUSE identifying the subject.

From these examples, you will see:

(1) That, in *form*, the attribute is either a **word**, a **phrase**, or a **clause.**

(2) That the *office* of an attribute is either to *describe* or to *identify* the subject.

Exercise:

a. Select and classify the attributes in the following sentences:

1. This book is a present. 2. The pudding is too sweet. 3. The children were at play. 4. Your child is in danger. 5. My intention is to complete the work to-day. 6. Her work was sewing on buttons. 7. Jennie appears to be satisfied. 8. The subject of debate is, Which is the best plan?

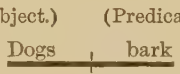
Lesson 26.

Diagrams.

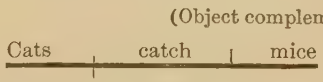
It is often convenient to show the relations of the different parts of a sentence so that they may be recognized at a glance.

When this is done by the use of lines, dots, and position, it is called diagraming. Notice how the relations are shown in the following sentences:

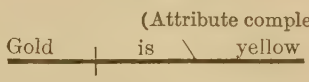
Dogs bark.



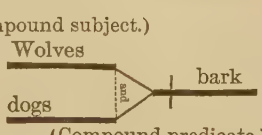
Cats catch mice.



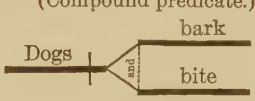
Gold is yellow.



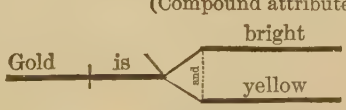
Wolves and dogs bark.



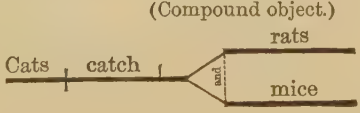
Dogs bark and bite.



Gold is bright and yellow.



Cats catch rats and mice.



Exercise:

Diagram the following. Capitalize the first word of the sentence:

Words are signs.
Thoughts and feelings are realities.
We imitate deeds and language.
Satin is smooth and pliable.

Lesson 27.

Analysis of Sentences.

Exercise:

Classify the following sentences; give the predicate, the subject, the object, if any, and the attribute, if any, in each sentence and clause; and state the form and the office of the attributes:

Model:

"You may be a smart boy, but you must be honest, too."

This is a declarative sentence, containing two statements. Entire predicate of first clause—*may be a smart boy.* Word-predicate—*may be.* Subject—*you*—a pronoun. Attribute of subject—*boy*—a noun. Entire predicate of second clause—*must be honest, too.* Word-predicate—*must be.* Subject—*you*—a pronoun. Attribute of subject—*honest*—an adjective.

1. Jack was an idle fellow who would not work. 2. Jack was idle, and would not do any work. 3. Thy brother was dead, and is alive again. 4. I am a Thracian and a soldier. 5. Unarmed and unattended walked the Czar. 6. It was summer, and the flowers were in bloom. 7. You were born a king, and I was born a private man. 8. The enterprise proved too difficult for Raleigh. 9. Now his eldest son was in the field. 10. To be blamed was my reward. 11. My reward was to be blamed. 12. His best exercise was leaping the bar. 13. The wonder is, how he escaped. 14. Who can that man be? 15. This subject is to be discussed. 16. The thing that you have always wanted has been a set, steady, constant purpose. 17. I firmly believed that the expedition would be successful. 18. Where are the flowers? 19. The chief art of learning is to attempt but little at a time. 20. Nothing that we do willingly is troublesome.

Lesson 28.

Composition Exercises in Review.

a. Fill the blanks in the following, as indicated by the words in parenthesis; then analyze the resulting sentences, as in Lesson 27:

(adj.) (adj.) (noun)
1. Is it not ——— ——— ———?

(noun) (phrase) (pronoun) (noun)
2. When ——— was ——— ——— I broke ——— ———.

(pronoun) (noun) (noun) (pronoun)
3. That is ——— ———, but ——— has borrowed ———.

(noun) (adj.) (noun)
4. ——— was a ——— ———.

(adj.) (adj.) (noun) (noun)
5. ——— ——— ——— was called ———.

(clause) (noun)
6. ——— was my ———.

(phrase) (phrase)
7. ——— is ———.

(phrase) (clause)
8. ——— is ———.

(noun) (noun) (adj.) (adj.) (adj.)
9. ——— and ——— are ———, ———, and ———.

(pronoun) (pronoun) (phrase)
10. ——— and ——— are ———.

b. Write an interrogative sentence with a phrase attribute.

c. Write a negative sentence with a clause attribute.

d. Write a declarative sentence with a phrase subject and a phrase attribute.

e. Write a declarative sentence with a clause subject and a noun attribute.

f. Write an exclamatory sentence with a pronoun as attribute.

g. Write an imperative sentence with a phrase attribute.

Lesson 29.

Modifiers of the Predicate.

The Predicate and the Subject are called the **Principal**

Parts of the sentence, because both are required in order to form a sentence. There may be many other words in a sentence besides the principal parts, but the office of the additional words is, generally, to modify or to limit the thought expressed by the principal parts.

REMARK.—*The Object Complement, or Object, as it performs an important office in the sentence, and yet does not directly modify or limit either the subject or the predicate, is considered by some grammarians as one of the principal parts of the sentence.*

Select the principal parts of the following sentences, and then try to discover the office of the additional words:

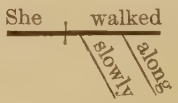
1. Mary played *well.*
2. *How* did you succeed?
3. It rained *yesterday.*
4. *When* will he come?
5. Bring your book *here.*
6. *Where* did you find water?

In each of these sentences, there is a word which adds something to the idea expressed by the word-predicate, and which is therefore called a *modifier of the predicate.* In the first and the second sentences, the additional word tells or asks *how;* in the third and fourth, *when;* in the fifth and sixth, *where.* As these words modify verbs, they are called **adverbs,** the word *adverb* meaning *added to a verb.*

Diagram.

(Adverbial adjunct.)

She walked slowly along.



Exercise:

In the following, select the words that modify predicates, stating what they modify, and how:

1. Where did you fill your basket so soon? 2. Study your lessons carefully to-night. 3. How merrily the sparrows twitter and how hard they work! 4. The boy and his dog marched merrily along. 5. Where shall wisdom be found? 6. I will gladly help you. 7. The boy took off

his hat when he came in, and answered my questions promptly and respectfully. 8. From San Salvador, Columbus sailed southward. 9. Overhead hang the long, fan-like branches. 10. The fox looked wistfully on while the crane coolly ate up the supper.

[**Note to the Teacher.**—Do not try to have the pupil diagram anything but word elements at this stage of advancement. Remember that sentential analysis should *precede* diagraming.]

Lesson 30.

Adverbial Modifiers—Phrase and Clause.

We will now vary some of the sentences already given by using different modifiers of the predicate:

1. Mary played *with care.*
2. It rained *in the night.*
3. Bring the book *to me.*
4. Mary played *as her teacher directed.*
5. It rained *while we slept.*
6. Bring your book *where you can see better.*

In the first three sentences, the word predicate is modified by a *phrase* telling how, when, or where.

In the next three, by a *clause* telling how, when, or where.

Phrases and clauses used to modify verbs, have the office of adverbs, and are called *adverbial modifiers*, or *adverbial adjuncts.*

Exercise:

Select the adverbial modifiers in the following sentences, classify them as words, phrases, or clauses, and tell what each does in the sentence:

1. When the tide has gone out, we will hunt for shells. 2. At the appointed time the boys met. 3. To-morrow we may catch fish at our ease. 4. As she reached farther, she slipped and fell into the water. 5. In the noisy street, my pleasant face you'll meet. 6. Bruno at once sprang down and seized the reins in his teeth. 7. Long ago, in a land beyond the sea, lived a poor wood-cutter. 8. One Christmas eve the children were sitting with their father and mother before the bright warm fire.

9. Pleasantly breaks the light
Down through the leafy bough.

10. After this David had to move from one place to another to escape from Saul. 11. The dog set off at full speed down the mountain side. 12. There is a story of a horse that took hold of a pump-handle with his teeth and pumped water into a trough when he wanted to drink.

13. Snow-drop nearly fainted
Because the room was hot,
And went away before the rest
With sweet Forget-me-not.

14. When I'm a man, a man,
I'll be a shoe-maker if I can—and I can!
I'll sit on a bench with my last held so,
And in and out shall my needles go.
I'll sew so strong that my work shall wear
Till nothing is left but my stitches there.

Lesson 31.

Adverbial Modifiers.

Exercise:

Choose some story from your Reader, and select and classify the adverbial modifiers in the first three paragraphs.

Direction for Punctuation.—When a clause is placed before the word it modifies, it should be set off by a comma. For examples see numbers *one* and *four* of the sentences in Lesson 30.

Composition Exercise:

a. Write three sentences in which the predicate is modified by a *word*.

b. Write three in which it is modified by a *phrase*.

c. Write three in which it is modified by a *clause*.

d. Use the following in sentences as adverbial modifiers, using as many as you please in the same sentence:

Anywhere, while I slept, unless you go, kindly, in time, to please you, soon, with ease, while you are gone, to recite our lesson, rapidly, indifferently, under the bridge, when you wish, yonder, if they persevere, from your house, at that time, after the fire, without you, by doing this.

Lesson 32.

Adjuncts of the Subject and Object.

Exercise:

Select the predicate, the subject, and the object, in the following sentences, and determine the use of the remaining words:

1. Kind friends helped the poor old man. 2. The little boy ate that red apple. 3. A selfish man has few friends.

In these sentences there are words added to the subjects and to the objects. Some of these words, as, *kind*, *poor*, *old*, *little*, *red*, *selfish*, tell a **quality** of the real thing named by the noun to which they belong; others, as *the*, *that*, *a*, *few*, **point out**, or **limit** the meaning of the noun.

Words used to qualify, *i. e.*, to limit or describe, nouns or pronouns, are called adjectives; therefore, all words, phrases, and clauses used to qualify nouns or pronouns are adjective adjuncts.

1. *Henry's* horses ate *my* barley. 2. Mr. *Brown* keeps *ladies'* and *children's* shoes.

In these sentences the subjects and the objects are limited by nouns denoting either *ownership*, as in number 1; or *kind*, as in number 2. As they limit nouns, they are adjective in office; or in other words, they are nouns used *adjectively*.

A word that qualifies a substantive is called an **adjective**.

As the subject is always *substantive* in office, the attribute is always *adjective* in office.

Remark.—*1. The attribute is sometimes placed before the subject; as,*

Happy are the children. *Here* he is.

2. In such sentences as

He is *here*, They are *in the house*,

the italicized words, though they seem adverbial, are really **adjective** *in office, describing the subject through the predicate. Many grammarians, however, prefer to consider them adverbial modifiers.*

3. Adverbs **modify**; *adjectives* **qualify**.

Exercise:

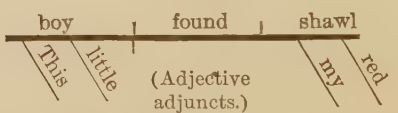
Select the adjuncts of the subjects and of the objects in the following sentences, telling what each one does.

MODEL:

"This little boy found my red shawl."

This limits *boy* by pointing out; *little* describes *boy* by telling size; *my* limits *shawl* by telling ownership; *red* describes *shawl* by telling color.

Diagram.



1. The brave soldier received a severe wound. 2. Every man carried a square box. 3. A babbling brook, clear and cool, bounded our garden on the south. 4. I gave John's old coat to a beggar. 5. Helen has pretty, brown eyes. 6. The rich old man gave a large diamond to his son.

Lesson 33.

ADJECTIVE ADJUNCTS—PHRASE AND CLAUSE.

In the following sentences, the italicized adjuncts of the subjects and objects are phrases or clauses used adjectively:

1. I see a boy *running past.*
2. The man *in the boat* saw the fish *in the water.*
3. The fruit *to be brought* will refresh us.
4. The sick girl took the medicine *brought by the doctor.*
5. The pupil, *who was industrious*, won the prize *that his teacher offered.*
6. The place *where the house stood* is now covered with trees.

Exercise:

Select and classify the adjuncts of the subjects and of the objects in the following sentences, and state what each one tells of the word to which it belongs:

7. The house on the hill was burned. 8. The house that stood on the hill was burned. 9. His patience will bring a sure reward. 10. Learn the same lesson that you had yesterday. 11. Crusoe had no mill

to grind his grain. 12. The beggar that came to the door yesterday has come again to-day. 13. We kept the clock that had belonged to our grandfather. 14. The remark that he made did not please me.

15. She wears a quaint little scarlet cap,
And a little green bowl she holds in her lap.

Lesson 34.

Composition Exercises:

a. Whenever possible, change the phrases in the sentences in Lesson 33 to clauses, and the clauses to phrases; thus,

(1) I see a boy *running past.* (Phrase)
I see a boy *who is running past.* (Clause)
(5) The pupil *who was industrious,* won the prize *that his teacher offered.* (Clauses)
The pupil, *being industrious,* won the prize *offered by his teacher.* (Phrases)

b. Write three sentences of your own containing phrases used as adjective adjuncts, and three containing clauses used as adjective adjuncts; then reverse them as above.

Lesson 35.

Adjective Adjuncts of the Attribute.

When the attribute is a substantive, that is, when it is a word identifying the subject (see Lesson 24), it may itself have the same classes of adjuncts as the subject or the object; viz., (1) adjectives, (2) nouns, or pronouns denoting ownership or kind, and (3) phrases or clauses.

Examples:

1. These are *good* apples.
2. This is the *baby's* doll.
3. He is a man *to be respected.*
4. He is the man *that helped us.*

Exercise:

a. Select and classify the adjuncts of the attribute in the following:

1. Jack was an idle fellow who would not work. 2. This was my reward. 3. They are good friends. 4. This is a trap to catch foxes. 5. What he needs, is our help. 6. It is a very good arrangement. 7. Man is the only animal that has a hand. 8. A mighty man is he. 9. This is the way to do it. 10. The sugar-cane is a native of the far east. 11. The constitution is the highest law of the land.

b. Select the attributes that have adjective adjuncts, in the sentences in Lessons 5 and 6.

Lesson 36.

COMPOSITION AND ANALYSIS—EXPANDING SENTENCES.

Exercise:

Give the word-predicate, the subject, and the object or the attribute, if any, in the following sentences. Expand each sentence by adding adjuncts to one or more of these parts; classify the adjuncts, and tell what each does.

MODEL:

Donkey found skin.

Predicate—*found.* Subject—*donkey.* Object—*skin.*

Expanded.—A long-eared donkey once found a lion's skin that was hanging in his master's shed.

A limits *donkey* by numbering. *Long-eared* describes *donkey* by telling kind. *Once* modifies *found* by telling when. *A* limits *skin* by numbering. *Lion's* describes *skin* by telling kind. The clause *that was hanging in his master's shed* limits *skin* by pointing out. The predicate of this clause is *was hanging.* Subject—*that.* The phrase *in his master's shed* modifies *was hanging* by telling where.

1. Horse was eating grass. 2. Robin built nest. 3. Prince traveled. 4. Bees are insects. 5. Man lived. 6. Men left work. 7. Grandfather was man. 8. Bees make honey. 9. Peas were growing. 10. Books are friends.

Lesson 37.

THE FORM OF SENTENCES.

(Simple, Complex, and Compound.)

We have seen, in several instances, that a clause may be used as an adjunct, either adjective or adverbial; thus,

1. We will ride *when the wind goes down.*
2. I found my book *where I left it.*
3. *As she reached farther,* she slipped and fell into the water.
4. The pupil *who was industrious,* won the prize *that was offered.*
5. The place *where the house stood* is now covered with trees.

Clauses used as adjuncts are called **dependent clauses,** or **subordinate clauses,** because they *depend* upon some other word. In the above sentences, the italicized clauses are dependent. The other clause in each sentence is called the **principal** clause, or **independent** clause, because it contains the most important assertion, and because the other clause or clauses depend upon it.

When a sentence contains one principal clause, and one or more dependent clauses, it is called a **complex sentence.**

The above are complex sentences.

Sometimes a sentence contains two or more clauses of equal rank, no one being dependent on another; as,

1. You may go **but** I will stay.
2. The grass is green **and** the flowers are beautiful.
3. You may speak your piece **or** Robert may sing a song.

When a sentence contains two or more independent clauses, it is called a **compound sentence.**

The above are compound sentences.

In a compound sentence there may be one or more dependent clauses belonging to the principal clauses.

Thus, we may add dependent clauses to the last sentence:

You may speak the piece *that you like best,* or Robert may sing the song *that I taught him.*

This sentence, however, is still *compound,* because it contains *two independent* clauses.

A sentence containing a single assertion, that is, but one combination of subject and predicate, is called a **simple sentence;** as,

That pretty little stone is a carnelian. (See also the sentences in Lesson 5.)

REMARK.—*A simple sentence may contain any number of words and phrases, but it never contains a clause.*

REMARK.—*Any* **part** *of a simple sentence may be* **compound.** (*See diagrams in Lesson 26.*)

REMARK.—*Any substantive clause is subordinate to the whole sentence; and any sentence containing a substantive clause, either as subject, attribute, or object, is considered complex.*

Exercise:

Classify according to form all the sentences in Lessons 22 and 27, and give reasons.

Lesson 38.

COMPOSITION IN REVIEW.

Exercises:

(a) Write four simple sentences.

(b) Write four complex sentences in which the dependent clause shall be an adjunct:

(1) Of the subject of the principal clause.
(2) Of the predicate of the principal clause.
(3) Of the object in the principal clause.
(4) Of the attribute in the principal clause.

(c) Write three simple sentences, then form a compound sentence by uniting the three simple sentences.

(d) Write a compound sentence consisting of two clauses.

(e) Expand your first simple sentence by adding an adverbial clause.

(f) Expand another simple sentence by adding an adjective clause.

(g) Write a complex sentence in which an adverbial clause is placed before the word it modifies.

(h) Write a compound sentence consisting of four clauses.

(i) Write a complex sentence in which there are three dependent clauses.

Note.—*After writing the above sentences, draw two lines under each principal clause and one line under each dependent clause.*

(j) Write a complex sentence having a subject clause.

(k) Write a complex sentence having an object clause.

(l) Write a complex sentence having an attribute clause.

Lesson 39.

More About Adverbial Modifiers.

Analyze the following sentences; that is, name the principal parts, then the dependent words, or modifiers. Examine carefully the italicized words, and try to determine their use.

1. We walked *very* slowly.
2. The weather is *delightfully* cool.
3. *Very* few men would have been *so* brave.
4. My teacher spoke *more* kindly than I deserved.
5. *Many* more flowers can be found.

It will be seen that each of the italicized words modifies some other word that is itself a modifier or adjunct of one of the principal parts. Thus *slowly* modifies the word-predicate *walked*, and *very* modifies *slowly* by telling *how slowly; cool* qualifies the subject *weather*, and *delightfully* modifies *cool* by telling *how cool*.

In number *one* and number *four*, the italicized modifier belongs to an adverb; in number *two*, number *three*, and number *five*, to an adjective.

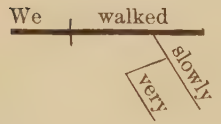
A word that modifies an adjective or an adverb is called an **adverb.**

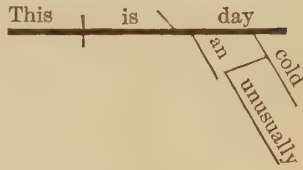
Remark.—Thus it is seen that an adverb may modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

Exercise:

a. Select the modifiers of adjectives or adverbs in the following, telling what they modify, and how; also tell what the word that they modify does in the sentence.

Diagram the sentences thus:





1. She was too happy to speak. 2. The evening is quite cool. 3. This lot is not so large as ours. 4. It rains more frequently in that country. 5. You came too late to see the procession. 6. The house is too old for service. 7. It was thought very strange. 8. This is an unusually cold day. 9. Henry rises very early. 10. Henry is a very early riser.

b. Compose and analyze five sentences containing modifiers of adjectives or adverbs, underlining the modified adjective or adverb once, and its modifier twice.

Lesson 40.

Prepositional Phrases.

Let us now examine more closely some of the phrases that have been used as principal parts or as adjuncts:

1. We will go *into the house.* 2. The house *on the hill* was burned. 3. I laid a book *on the table.* 4. Give the book *to me.* 5. The gardener picked a box *of apples.* 6. The boy *beside me* asked a question.

You will see that each italicized phrase is made up of a noun or a pronoun, and a word which connects this noun or pronoun to the word which the phrase modifies or limits.

Thus, in the first sentence, the phrase, *into the house*, is an adverbial adjunct modifying the verb *will go*, by telling *where.*

Into connects the noun *house* to the verb *will go.*

In the second sentence, the phrase, *on the hill*, is an adjective adjunct limiting the noun *house.*

On connects the noun *hill* to the subject *house.*

In the same way, analyze the phrases in the remaining sentences.

The connecting word in each of these phrases is called a **preposition,** because it is *placed before* the noun or pronoun, the word *preposition* meaning *placed before.* The noun or pronoun that the preposition connects to some other word in the sentence, is called the object of the preposition.

Note.—*The word to which the noun or pronoun is connected is of more importance, of higher rank in the sentence, than the object of the preposition.*

Exercise:

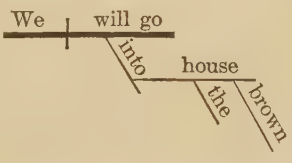
Name the objects of the prepositions in the above sentences.

REMARK.—*The term* **object** *is applied in this case because of the form that the* **pronoun** *takes when it has this office. Thus, we say* by **me,** *and not* by **I**; to **him,** *and not* to **he.**

The object of the preposition may be described or limited by adjuncts; thus,

1. We will go into the *brown* house.
2. The barn on that *high green* hill was burned.

Diagramed:



These additional words, however, are not essential parts of the phrase.

Phrases that are introduced by prepositions are called **prepositional phrases.**

Exercise:

a. Name the prepositional phrases in the sentences at the beginning of this lesson.

b. Select and analyze the prepositional phrases in the following:

MODEL:

Lay your books on the table.

On the table is a prepositional phrase in form and adverbial in office, modifying the verb *lay* by telling *where*. The preposition *on* connects its object *table* to *lay*. *Table* is limited by the adjunct *the*.

1. A seed of the beautiful mistletoe was separated from its parent. 2. At the age of twelve, Franklin was apprenticed to his brother James, who was a printer. 3. A large number of monkeys will sometimes get together in the morning, in the woods. 4. After dinner we will walk to town. 5. School opened on Monday, at 9 o'clock A. M. 6. In all the surrounding fields there grew fine crops of wheat and barley. 7. The long, slender boughs of the willow are the favorite resort of the oriole. 8. Long ago, in a castle in the heart of the German forest, lived a proud nobleman, who, on one particular Sunday morning, took it into his head to go hunting.

9. And little brown bird in the sycamore tree,
You have sung pretty songs all day to me;
Now go to your rest,
In your nice soft nest;
I shall see you again in the morning light.

10. A small remnant of cheese was divided among the famished children.

Diagram 1, 3, 4, and 7.

Lesson 41.

VERBAL PHRASES.

In the sentences studied in preceding lessons, we have also had a second class of phrases, such as the following:

1. ***Jumping rope*** **is good exercise.**
2. **We saw Henry** ***eating an apple.***
3. **I found the horse** ***tied fast.***

In these phrases, the principal words, *jumping*, *eating*, *tied*, are words very much like verbs, but they do not assert, and, therefore, are not verbs. Thus, *I am jumping*, *Henry was eating*, *the horse was tied*, are assertions; but, *I jumping*, *Henry eating*, *Horse tied*, are not assertions.

Words which come from and resemble verbs, and yet do not assert, are called **verbals.**

A phrase in which the principal word is a verbal, is called a **verbal phrase.**

Some verbal phrases have another form, as in the following:

1. I hope *to see you.* 2. *To earn my living* is my ambition.

In such cases, the verbal is made up of two words—*to see, to earn.*

In a verbal phrase, the verbal may be modified by some other word; as,

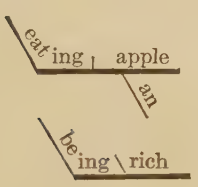
to write **well**; *running* **fast**;

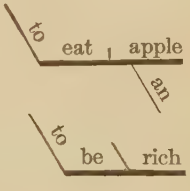
or it may have an object; as,

To see **you** *eating an* **apple**;

or an attribute complement; as,

Being **rich**; *to be* **rich.**





There are, then, two classes of phrases; namely, *prepositional phrases*, of which the principal words are a preposition and its object, and *verbal phrases*, of which the principal part is a verbal, with its complement, if there be one.

The introductory word in a phrase is called the *leader.* In a prepositional phrase, the leader is a preposition; in a verbal phrase, the leader is a verbal.

REMARK.—*A verbal introduced by* **to** *is called an* **infinitive.** *The* **to** *of the infinitive is sometimes understood; as*

Who saw her **eat** the apple? = [to] *eat.*
She was seen **to eat** the apple. (Expressed.)

ANALYSIS.—*To eat the apple* is a verbal phrase, of which the leader is the infinitive *to eat,* and its object is the noun *apple.*

REMARK.—*A verbal not having* **to** *either expressed or understood is called* **a participle.**

Having eaten the apple, she counted the seeds.

Having eaten the apple is a verbal phrase, of which the leader is the participle *having eaten* and its object the noun *apple.*

Exercise:

Select, classify, and give the office of the phrases in the following sentences; then analyze each phrase, according to the model last given:

1. The boys are swimming in the river. 2. The books to be studied next are these. 3. Get a box of apples. 4. I hope to see you. 5. The man sitting there is a lawyer. 6. To write well is a valuable accomplishment. 7. I enjoy watching the bathers. 8. I came to ask you. 9. We saw the men mowing grass. 10. John came limping along. 11. Into the street the piper stepped. 12. The hat on the table is yours. 13. My wish is to receive instruction.

Lesson 42.

THE CLAUSE—CONNECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Let us now return to some of the sentences already studied, and examine more closely the *clauses* used as modifiers, observing *especially* the office of the introductory word in the clause.

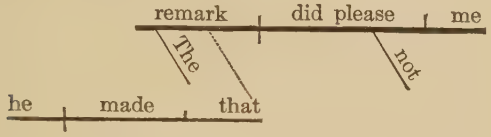
The pupil *who was industrious,* won the prize *that his teacher offered.*

In this sentence, the subject *pupil* is limited by the clause, *who was industrious.* The clause is connected to *pupil* by the pronoun *who.* The predicate of the dependent clause is *was industrious;* the subject of the dependent clause is the pronoun *who.*

It will thus be seen that the pronoun *who* has a double office; first, as a *connective,* connecting the dependent clause to the word which the clause limits; second, as the subject of the dependent clause. Again, the object *prize* is limited by the clause, *that his teacher offered.* The clause is connected to *prize* by the pronoun *that.* In the dependent

clause, *offered* is the predicate, *teacher* is the subject, and *that* is the object. Therefore *that* has a double office in the sentence; first, as a *connective;* second, as the *object* in the dependent clause.

A pronoun that connects a dependent clause to the word which the clause limits, and, at the same time, performs some substantive office in the dependent clause, is called a **connective pronoun.**



Exercises:

a. You may now take the sentences that you made as a composition exercise in Lesson 36, and select the clauses that are introduced by connective pronouns. Tell what word each clause limits, and give the two offices of the connective pronoun.

b. Do the same with the following sentences:

1. The only man whom I was acquainted with was absent. 2. The remark that he made did not please me. 3. Learn the lesson that was given to you yesterday. 4. Learn the lesson that I gave to you yesterday. 5. Jack was an idle fellow, who would not work. 6. The house that stood on the hill was burned. 7. The soldier whose wound was so severe recovered. 8. I expect to find the book that you lost. 9. This is the person whom you wished to see. 10. He spoke of my brother, who was then absent.

Lesson 43.

The Clause—Connective Adverbs.

There is a second class of words which connect dependent clauses to the words which the clauses modify, and, at the same time, perform another office.

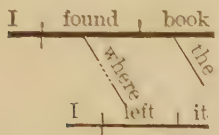
I found my book **where** *I left it.*

In this sentence, *where I left it* is an adverbial clause modifying the verb *found*. *Where* connects the dependent clause to *found*. It also modifies the verbs *found* and *left* by showing place, and is, therefore, an adverb.

We shall ride **when** *the wind goes down.*

When connects the dependent clause, *when the wind goes down*, to the verb *shall ride*. It also modifies the verbs *shall* and *goes*, and so is adverbial in office.

A word that connects a clause to the word that the clause modifies, and, at the same time, performs the office of an adverb, is called a **connective adverb.**



(Here *where* equals *in the place in which*. The first phrase modifies *found*, the second modifies *left*.)

Exercise:

In the following sentences, select the clauses which are introduced by connective adverbs. Tell what word the clause modifies, and give the two offices of the connective adverb. Diagram each sentence:

1. A plant sprang up where we had planted the seed. 2. We will start whenever you are ready. 3. Do good while you can. 4. I did as you requested. 5. My dog follows me wherever I go. 6. The sun set while we were in the woods. 7. Do as I do. 8. When the cat is away, the mice will play.

Lesson 44.

CONJUNCTIONS.

We have now selected and studied three kinds of connectives:

First, the *preposition*, which connects its object to the word which the prepositional phrase limits or modifies;

Second, the *connective pronoun*, which connects a depend-

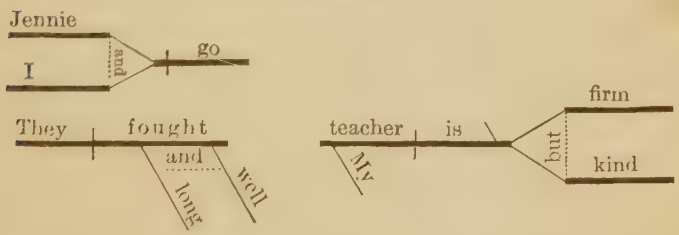
ent clause to the word which the clause limits, and, at the same time, has some substantive office in the dependent clause;

Third, the *connective adverb*, which connects a dependent clause to the word which the clause modifies, and, at the same time, itself modifies one or more verbs.

There is one other class of connectives which connect, but have no other office.

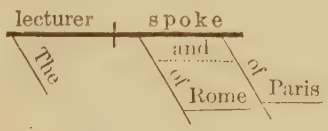
Sometimes connectives of this class connect words; as,

1. *Jennie* AND *I* go to school.
2. Bring me a *book* OR a *slate*.
3. My teacher is *kind* BUT *firm*.
4. *Go* AND *find* your hat.
5. They fought like brave men *long* AND *well*.



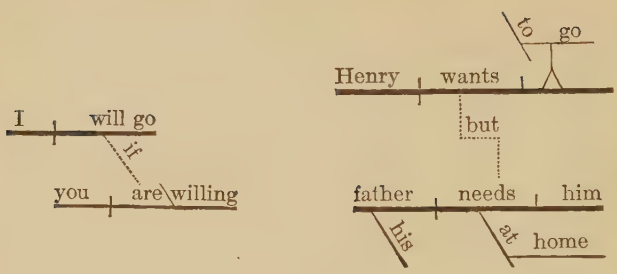
Sometimes they connect phrases; as,

6. The lecturer spoke *of Rome* AND *of Paris*.
7. You will find John *in the barn* OR *in the shed*.
8. Learn *to speak distinctly* AND *to write legibly*.
9. *Hunting for the cows* AND *driving them home* took an hour.



Sometimes they connect clauses:

10. *I will go* IF *you are willing*.
11. *The sailor said* THAT *he had been wrecked twice*.
12. *The crops are good* THOUGH *but little rain fell*.
13. *Henry wants to go to school* BUT *his father needs him at home*.
14. *We shall not sow the seed* UNTIL *rain falls*.
15. *Washington was a great general* AND *Jefferson was a great statesman*.



Connectives like the above, which have no other office in the sentence, are called **Conjunctions,** the word *conjunction* meaning *that which joins together.*

Words or *phrases* connected by a conjunction usually have the same office in the sentence. Thus, in the first sentence, the conjunction connects two subjects of the same verb; in the second, two objects of the same verb; in the third, two adjectives qualifying the same noun; in the sixth, two phrases modifying the same verb, and so on.

Clauses connected by a conjunction may have a similar office, or one may be subordinate to the other.

Exercise:

Select the conjunctions in the following sentences, and tell what they connect:

1. My mother called Lucy and me. 2. He is proud that he is a soldier. (Connects a subordinate clause.) 3. The driver intends to come here to-day and to go there to-morrow. 4. The rolling mist came down and hid the land. 5. Regulus lost his life but kept his word. 6. I lost the train but I found my cloak. 7. Now I propose that we build a wharf. 8. He will move neither to the right nor to the left. 9. If you would be happy, you must be active. 10. The sun is larger than the moon [is large]. 11. Washington always decided wisely and justly. 12. The boy has no father nor mother. 13. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty. (Connects a subordinate clause.)

Lesson 45.

Independent Parts.

We have seen that the words in an ordinary sentence

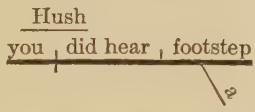
may usually be classified as having one of three offices in the sentence; they are *principal parts*, *adjuncts*, or *connectives*.

There are sometimes, however, words and phrases used that have no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence. These words often add something to the thought expressed by the sentence, or help to express the thought in a more forcible manner, but as they are not used as principal parts, modifiers, or connectives, they are called **independent parts.**

These independent parts may be:

(1) Exclamatory words and phrases; as,

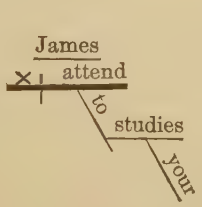
Hush! did you hear a footstep? *What a mistake!* It is greatly to be regretted. *What! he a friend!* I know he is an enemy. *Life! life!* Only let me live.



Note.—*Hush, although clearly a verb of command, is here used as an exclamation.*

(2) A name or a title used simply to call the attention of the person addressed, or to name the person of whom the sentence speaks, without having any other office; as,

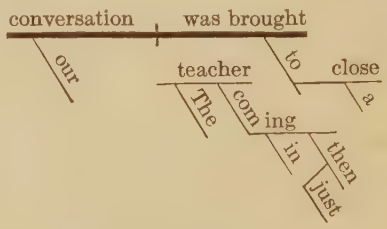
Children, it is time to go. *James,* attend to your studies. *Our friends,* why do they not help us? *Remorseless Time,* what power can stay him?



(3) A noun limited by a verbal phrase, the whole having no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence; as,

The jury having been selected, the judge proceeded to try the case.
The teacher coming in just then, our conversation was brought to a close.

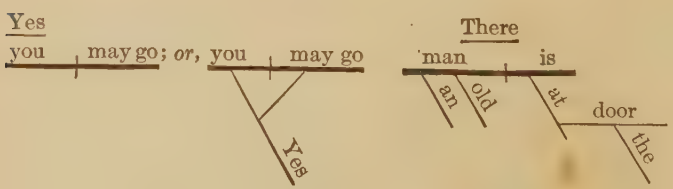
This is called an absolute phrase.



(The absolute phrase is placed below the verb because it modifies it in sense although there is no grammatical connective.)

(4) Introductory words used for emphasis or for euphony; as,

Yes, you may go. *No,* you must not do it. *There* is an old man at the door.



Lesson 46.

COMPOSITION—SENTENCE BUILDING.

A Simple Sentence Expanded.

In each of the following sentences, tell what adjunct or adjuncts have been added to the preceding sentence to form the new sentence, and give the office of each adjunct:

1. A man called. 2. A poor old man called. 3. A poor old man called at our house. 4. A poor old man called at our house one morning. 5. A poor old man called at our house one chilly morning in the spring. 6. A poor old man, tired and hungry, called at our house one chilly morning in the spring, to ask for a cup of coffee.

REMARK.—*Notice that number* **six,** *though very much longer than number* **one,** *is still a* simple sentence.

Exercise:

In the same way, expand the following sentences, making at least five new *simple* sentences from each:

1. These children went. 2. A friend had money. 3. Our teacher saw us. 4. A bee lighted. 5. Sparrows built.

Lesson 47.

COMPOSITION—SENTENCE BUILDING.

A Complex Sentence Built.

1. Brother planted trees. 2. My brother planted trees last winter. 3. My brother planted peach and apple trees in our garden last winter. 4. My brother planted twenty peach trees and thirty apple trees in our garden last winter. 5. My brother, who lives in the city, planted twenty peach trees and thirty apple trees in our garden last winter. 6. My brother, who lives in the city, planted twenty peach trees and thirty apple trees in our garden last winter, when he came to visit us.

Exercises:

a. Which of the above sentences are simple? Which are complex? Name the independent clauses and the dependent clauses in the complex sentences. Select the phrase adjuncts in the last sentence, and tell what they limit or modify.

b. Change sentence number *six* in Lesson 46 to a complex sentence.

c. Expand the following according to the above plan, making five new sentences from each, three simple and two complex:

1. Jennie found a bird. 2. A farmer had a horse. 3. Fishes swim. 4. The boys were riding.

Lesson 48.

Sentence Building.

A Compound Sentence Built.

1. The boys had built a boat. 2. The boys of our school had built a large boat. 3. The boys that belonged to our school had built a large boat. 4. The boys that belonged to our school had built a large boat, in which they often sailed on the lake. 5. The boys that belonged to our school had built a large boat, and in it they often sailed on the lake. 6. The boys that belonged to our school had built a large boat, which they painted red; and in it they often sailed on the lake near which the school house stood.

Exercises:

a. Select the simple sentences, the complex sentences, and the compound sentences, from the above. Give the independent clauses and the dependent clauses in the complex sentences; also in the compound sentences. Select all the phrase adjuncts and tell what they limit or modify.

b. Make six new sentences from each of the following, the first two simple, the next two complex, and the last two compound.

1. The soldiers marched. 2. Night came. 3. The prisoner thought.

Review Questions.

[**To the Teacher.**—As a test of what the pupil has learned, of his comprehension of what has been presented, and of his ability to use the knowledge acquired, the following questions are inserted. Many of them are fully answered in the text, but there are others requiring the exercise of the judgment and understanding before they can be answered. These are far the most valuable. In the text, few definitions are given, because one definition *made* is worth ten *learned*. The first is the training of the power of discernment and discrimination, the second, of the memory only.

The answers to these questions should be in complete sentences, and if the pupil is taught to weave the question into his answer it gives a good training in the use of language.]

1. For what do we use words? 2. Why should we study words and their uses? 3. What is language? 4. What is the purpose of studying grammar? 5. What is a sentence? A phrase? A clause? Illustrate each by several examples. 6. What is the difference between a phrase and a clause? Between a sentence and a clause? 7. Name the different kinds of sentences. Give examples of each. 8. What is the difference between a declarative sentence and an interrogative sentence? 9. What is the difference in the way they are written? 10. What is the difference between an imperative sentence and a declarative sentence? 11. How can you change the following declarative sentences into imperative sentences? *Boys play quietly. Children go to school.* 12. Rewrite the following, changing them to interrogative sentences, and notice how the change is made: *Henry may go out to play. William has found his knife. Julia writes very neatly.* 13. How is a declarative sentence changed to an interrogative sentence? 14. Give the rule for beginning a sentence. 15. Should words in columns begin with capital letters? 16. Give the rule for ending a declarative sentence; an interrogative sentence; an imperative sentence; an exclamatory sentence. 17. When do we use exclamatory sentences? Show that an interrogative sentence may become exclamatory; that a declarative sentence may become exclamatory. 18. How can you tell a negative sentence? 19. How can you change an affirmative sentence to a negative sentence? Change the following to negative sentences: *The soldiers have returned. It rained yesterday. Take that book. Is he ready?*

20. What is the complement of a verb? 21. Show the difference between a *complete* and an *incomplete* verb. 22. What kind of verbs

take complements? 23. What kind take object complements? 24. When a transitive verb takes a complement, what is the complement called? 25. What besides a noun may be the object complement? Give examples of each. 26. Give two sentences each containing a verb having two or more object complements; of two or more verbs with the same object; of two or more verbs with more than one object complement. 27. What is the subject of a declarative sentence? of an imperative sentence? of an interrogative sentence? (Notice that the interrogative sentence may have for its subject the person or thing *of* whom or *about* whom the question is asked.)

28. What is the predicate of a declarative sentence? Of an imperative sentence? Of an interrogative sentence? 29. In the sentence, *The boy is happy*, what word completes the verb is? What word does *happy* describe? 30. What are such complements called? 31. Do these complements ever do any thing but *describe* the subject? What else do they do? Illustrate. 32. Take the following words and put into the brace as many different kinds of complements as you can think of, and, as far as you can, tell what each one does. (Those that you can not fully understand, you will hereafter study further.)

Horses are {

33. What is the attribute in a sentence? 34. Do all attributes *describe* the subject? 35. If not, what else do they do? 36. Give an example of a clause attribute; of a phrase attribute; of a pronoun used as an attribute. 37. Give an example of an attribute used *before* the subject. 38. What words qualify or limit nouns? 39. What words modify verbs? 40. What words besides verbs do adverbs modify? 41. What are the *principal* parts of a sentence? 42. What are words called that qualify or limit the subject, the object, or the noun attribute? 43. What do adverbial modifiers generally show? 44. Name some adverbial modifiers that show *how; when; where; why.* 45. When adverbial clauses are set *before* the clauses that they modify, how are they separated from them? 46. What are adjective adjuncts? 47. Give examples of word adjuncts, phrase adjuncts, and clause adjuncts, used adjectively. 48. Notice how a *phrase* may be expanded into a *clause.* Expand the italicized phrases into clauses: I saw a stone *rolling down hill.* A bird *in the hand* is worth two *in the bush.* The work *to be accomplished* is difficult. 49.

Of what is a prepositional phrase composed? Of what is a verbal phrase composed? 50. How many kinds of verbal phrases are there? Give an example of a verbal phrase having an infinitive as its leader; one having a participle as its leader.

51. (a) Give an example of an infinitive having an object.

(b) Give an example of a participle having an object.

(c) Give an example of an infinitive having an attribute.

(d) Give an example of a participle having an attribute.

(e) Give an example of an infinitive having an adverbial modifier.

(f) Give an example of a participle having an adverbial modifier.

(g) Give an example of an infinitive with the *to* understood.

(h) Use an infinitive phrase as the subject of a sentence.

(i) Use an infinitive phrase as an attribute.

(j) Use an infinitive phrase as an object.

(k) Give an example of an infinitive phrase used as an adverbial modifier.

(l) Give an example of a participial phrase used as an adjective adjunct.

(m) Give an example of a prepositional phrase used as an attribute of the subject.

52. How many and what different kinds of connectives may connect subordinate clauses to the rest of the sentence? Give examples of each. 53. What is the difference between a connective pronoun and a connective adverb? 54. What is the difference between a connective pronoun and a conjunction?

55. (a) Give an example of a conjunction connecting words.

(b) Give an example of a conjunction connecting phrases.

(c) Give an example of a conjunction connecting independent clauses.

56. When *words* are connected by conjunctions, what can you say of the office of the words? 57. What is a word or a phrase having no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence called? 58. Give examples of an exclamatory word; of an absolute phrase. Of the name of the person addressed. 59. How should they be punctuated? 60. Expand each italicized word or phrase into a clause, and tell what kind of clause it is:

(a) The boy *yonder* is industrious.

(b) The man *sitting by the roadside* is a cripple.

(c) *Seeing the difficulty,* we abandoned the undertaking.

(d) *Having finished his task,* the prisoner was given a frugal repast.

Additional Work in Analysis.

Form for Analysis of a Simple Sentence.

I. Classify the Sentence: {1. According to *form*. {2. According to *meaning*.

II. Point out the Asserting Words.
Modified or completed by: {1. Adverbial adjunct. {2. Attribute or Object Complement.
Which may be: **a.** Word. **b.** Phrase=Prin. part. | Adjunct. **c.** Clause. Showing ———.

III. Principal Part of Subject.
Qualified by Adjective Adjunct:
Which may be: **a.** Word. **b.** Phrase=Prin. part. | Adjunct. **c.** Clause. Showing ———.

IV. Independent elements.

Form for Complex and Compound Sentences.

1. Analyze the principal clause or clauses first.
2. Classify the subordinate clauses as adjuncts, and then analyze as above. (See form for simple sentence.)
3. Point out the connectives.

Model:

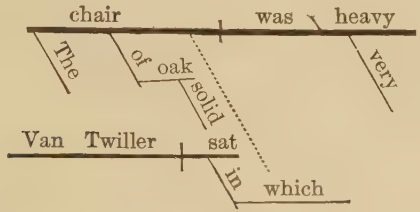
The chair of solid oak in which Van Twiller sat was very heavy.

A complex declarative sentence.

Principal clause: *The chair of solid oak was very heavy*, of which *was* is the asserting word, completed by *heavy*, an attribute word showing weight. *Heavy* is modified by *very*, an adverbial word-adjunct showing degree. The principal part of the subject is *chair*, limited by *the*, an adjective word-adjunct pointing out, and by *of solid oak*, an adjective prepositional phrase showing material. *Of oak* is the principal part, and oak is limited by *solid*, an adjective word-adjunct showing kind. *Chair* is also limited by *in which Van Twiller sat*, an adjective clause showing which chair. Of this subordinate clause, *sat* is the asserting word, modified by *in which*,

an adverbial prepositional phrase of place. *Van Twiller* is the subject. The subordinate clause is connected to *chair* by *which*.

Diagram.



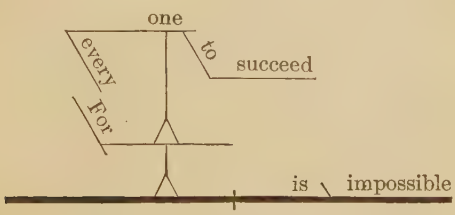
To the Teacher.—The diagram is much shorter than the analysis, but diagraming does not train the pupil in the ready use of oral language.

Phrases and Clauses.

Analyze, and notice the diagrams:

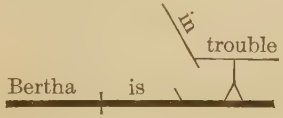
1. Subject phrase, prepositional.

For every one to succeed is impossible.



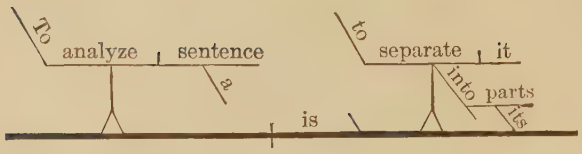
2. Attribute phrase, prepositional:

Bertha is in trouble. (Condition.)



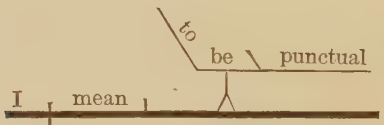
3. Subject and attribute phrases, verbal:

To analyze a sentence is to separate it into its parts.



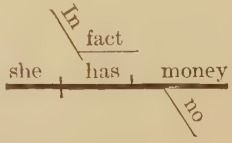
4. Object phrase, verbal:

I mean to be punctual.



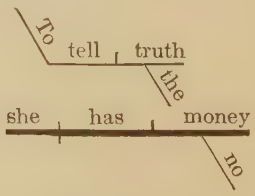
5. Independent phrase, prepositional:

In fact, she has no money.



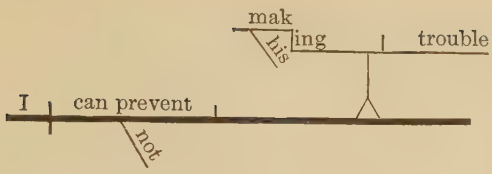
6. Independent phrase, verbal:

To tell the truth, she has no money.



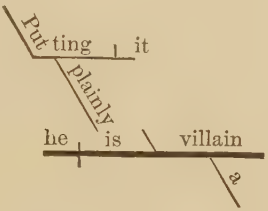
7. Object phrase, verbal:

I can not prevent his making trouble.
(*Making*, part verb and part noun.)



8. Independent phrase, verbal:

Putting it plainly, he is a villain.

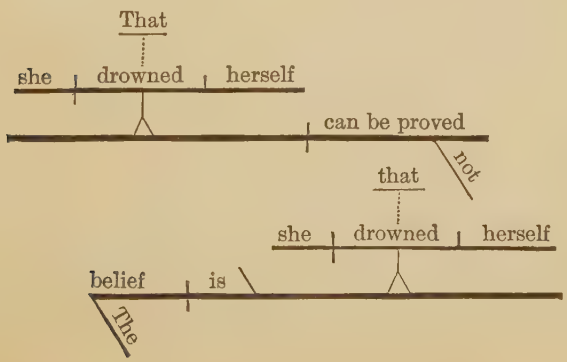


Complex Sentences.

Substantive Clauses and Introductory Conjunction.

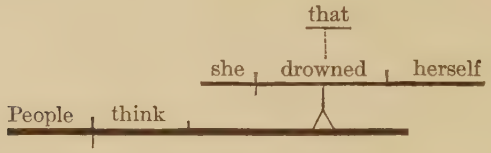
1. Subject clause and attribute clause:

That she drowned herself cannot be proved.
The belief is that she drowned herself. (Identity.)

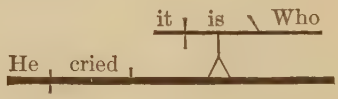


2. Object clause:

People think that she drowned herself.



He cried, "Who is it?" (No conjunction needed.)



1. I do not fear to meet him on the open field. 2. Why stand we here idle? 3. Already the bold riflemen are on the rock. 4. How magnificent was the sight that now burst upon me! 5. What she did there I can not tell. 6. What she did there has never been told. 7. The best place for the flag is on that high hill. 8. Father, Thy hand hath reared these venerable columns. 9. To do good forget not. 10. To load his gun was the work of an instant.

11. Then the master,
With a gesture of command,
Waved his hand.

12. Pruning the trees kept us busy for a month. 13. Can time, or winds, or floods, or fire destroy Luther's pyramid? 14. Never boast of catching a fish until he is on dry land. 15. To gain an undying name, Alexander drew the sword of conquest. 16. In the second day of the voyage, they came to the Highlands. 17. "Well, my boys," said the old gentleman, "I will be the judge." 18. How far that little candle throws its beams!

19. On right, on left, above, below,
Sprang up at once the lurking foe.

20. How often since, I have been reminded of the fish that I did not catch. 21. Pleased with this praise, Polly sang away in a fresh little voice that went straight to the listener's heart. 22. Never take a mean advantage of any one in any transaction, and never be unkind to people who are in your power.

23. Why wouldst thou leave me, O gentle child?
Thy home on the mountain is bleak and wild.

24. The nightingale shyly took
Her head from under her wing,
And, giving the dove a look,
Straightway began to sing.

25. Now, here you see young David Copperfield, and the question is, What shall I do with him? 26. The chapel bell began to ring at a quarter to eleven, and Tom got in early and took his place in the lowest row.

27. Flag of the seas! on ocean wave
Thy stars shall glitter o'er the brave.

28. Born upon the verge of civilization, Webster retained to the last his love for that pure, fresh nature in which he was cradled.

29. And Maud forgot her brier-torn gown,
And her graceful ankles bare and brown,
And listened, while a glad surprise
Looked from her long-lashed hazel eyes.

30. A form more fair, a face more sweet,
Ne 'er hath it been my lot to meet.

31. When Mackenzie had finished speaking, the chief rose, began to address him in a low voice, but soon became loud and violent, and ended by working himself into a furious passion.

32. He who ascends to mountain tops shall find
The loftiest peaks most wrapt in clouds and snow;
He who surpasses or subdues mankind
Must look down on the hate of those below.

PART II.-INTRODUCTION.

To the Teacher.—In Part I. you have led the pupil to see by the actual investigation of the English sentence its signification as a whole, its division into elements, and their meaning and bearing upon, or relation to each other. You have also shown him that the separate words, as signs of certain ideas or relations, are the Parts of Speech, and you have given him the names which, for purposes of convenience, are commonly applied to these. It now remains to show him that a word is not necessarily always the same part of speech, though retaining exactly the same form; and, on the other hand, that some words may undergo certain changes of form, called modifications, and yet remain the same part of speech. He should also now discern the changes of relations that give rise to these modifications, and the laws controlling them.

Wherever it is practicable, the pupil should be led to see these things for himself. The plan of Part I. is, therefore, continued—exercises on all important points being presented for examination, from which the pupil should be taught to deduce general principles and rules. The amount of space required, however, makes it impossible to carry out this plan in every detail. It is left for the teacher to present additional exercises for development and illustration, according to the ability and advancement of the pupils.

In this work no attempt is made to give formal definitions to be memorized. There is usually too much parrot-like recitation in grammar classes, and definitions, forms for parsing, etc., contribute to foster this kind of work. The design here is to lead the child himself to recognize facts, relations, and laws. This is done by means of questions upon sentences presented for his careful examination.

As far as possible he should be required to make his own definitions, thus cultivating a clear conception and understanding of the subject, as well as a habit of expressing his thoughts clearly and accurately. It may often be found profitable to require more than one definition for the same thing, with illustrations, original or selected, to make sure that the point is well understood. This becomes, under the guidance of the teacher, oral composition.

If in parsing or construction, the pupil is required to give, before stating his conclusions, the facts derived from his observation, his power of discrimination and judgment will be trained as well as his power of discernment and memory. Thus, instead of "This is a noun because it is a name; masculine gender because it denotes the male sex; second person because spoken of," etc., let the order be reversed, as follows: "This is a name, therefore a noun; denotes a male, therefore masculine gender; denotes the person spoken to, therefore second person," etc.

Of course, neither plan should be followed exclusively, but great care should be taken that the pupil do not fall into the habit of almost *thoughtless* recitation.

The composition exercises should be carefully prepared, and may be much extended, those given here being mainly suggestive.

CHAPTER I.

REVIEW OF PARTS OF SPEECH.

Lesson 49.

In Part First, you have learned to classify words as nouns, pronouns, verbs, etc., according to their use in sentences.

There are nine of these classes, called **Parts of Speech**, viz.: *Nouns*, *Pronouns*, *Adjectives*, *Verbs*, *Verbals*, *Adverbs*, *Prepositions*, *Conjunctions*, and *Interjections*.

Besides these there are a few words used merely for euphony (that is, for the sake of sound) which do not belong properly to any one of the above classes.

Such words are generally called *expletives*.

Exercise:

Analyze the following sentences according to models given in Part First.

Give the use of each word in the sentence, and tell what part of speech it is.

MODEL:

The school that I visited in San Francisco is large.

The limits the noun *school*, and is therefore an *adjective*. *School* is a name, and is therefore a *noun*. *That* stands for the noun *school*, and is therefore a *pronoun*. *I* stands for a name, and is therefore a *pronoun*. *Visited* asserts something of *I*, and is therefore a *verb*. *In* connects its object *San Francisco* to the verb *visited*, and is therefore a *preposition*. *San Francisco* is a name, and is therefore a *noun*. *Is* asserts something of *school*, and is therefore a *verb*. *Large* describes *school*, and is therefore an *adjective*.

1. Breakfast was ready and they sat down at the table. 2. I shall fish where the water is deep. 3. Halloo! come and help us. 4. The next morning proved fine and sunny, and great numbers of people came to the auction. 5. How did you know I was coming? 6. Annie's papa was sitting in the rocking-chair by the stove, when she went back. 7. In the corner of the park is the hunter's lodge built of stone. 8. The

poor woman works very hard to support her family. 9. There is no hope of catching the train. 10. "Oh!" cried the girl, "look at that fish!" 11. In the afternoon they played all sorts of games. 12. Through the opening, Becky could see her grandfather bending over the big brick oven. 13. Goldsmith would give away his money, his dinner, or his clothes, whenever he saw anybody in distress. 14. Where are you going, my pretty maid?

15. The sudden sun shone through the pane,
And lighted both their faces.

Lesson 50.

Definitions.

From the foregoing exercises you have learned that:

A *Noun* is a name.

A *Pronoun* is a word used instead of a noun.

An *Adjective* is a word limiting or describing a noun or a pronoun.

[**Note to the Teacher.**—The pupil should be led to see that a qualifying adjective really describes the *thing* named rather than the noun which names the thing, but as the above definition is brief, and the one in general use, it is thought best to retain it here.]

A *Verb* is a word that asserts (tells, asks, or commands).

A *Verbal* is a word derived from a verb, and is generally used to assume something instead of to assert.

An *Adverb* is a word added to a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or an adverb, to modify its meaning.

A *Preposition* is a word connecting its object to the word that the prepositional phrase limits or modifies.

A *Conjunction* is a word connecting words, phrases, or clauses, and having no other office.

An *Interjection* is a word expressing strong or sudden feeling, and having no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence.

[**Note to the Teacher.**—Additional exercises in telling parts of speech should be given from lessons in the First and Second Readers. Let children bring in original sentences, in which the class name the parts of speech.]

Lesson 51.

How to tell the Parts of Speech.

Exercise:

Give the part of speech of each italicized word in the following:

1. I saw a *black swallow fly* fast. 2. Did the little boy *swallow a fly?* 3. The boys *black* their boots. 4. *That light* went out. 5. The light *that* you put in the window went out. 6. Write the word *that* on the board. 7. *Light* the lamp so that the room may be *light.* 8. *Little* Harry is afraid of the *dark,* but his sister cares *little* if the room is *dark.* 9. *I* forgot to dot the *i* in the word *in.* 10. Your book is *in* the house.

From the sentences already studied, it will be seen that there are three methods of classification by which we may determine what part of speech any given word is:

First, and least important, every word, spoken of *merely as a word,* is a name, or *noun;* thus,

Write **go** on your slate. **Last** is often mispronounced. You have not spelled **great** correctly. He could not say **no.** Cross the **t** in **then.** Look for **whom** in the dictionary.

Second, most words are, in their derivation and general use, some particular part of speech; thus,

Good is usually an adjective: *This is a* **good** *apple.*
Home is usually a noun: *He lives at* **home.**
Above is usually a preposition: *The clouds are* **above** *our heads.*
But is usually a conjunction: *The day is cloudy* **but** *warm.*

This is called the *etymology,* or *etymological* classification of words.

Third, and most important, the *use* of a word in any given sentence determines its part of speech in that sentence; thus,

Good may be used as a noun: *He tried to do* **good.**
Home may be used as an adverb: *Let us go* **home.**
Above may be used as an adjective; *I refer to the* **above** *statement.*
But may be used as a preposition: *All are gone* **but** *me.*

This is called the *grammatical* classification, or the *syntax* of words, and it is the classification with which, in the study of grammar, we are especially concerned.

Lesson 52.

Exercises:

a. Write sentences containing the following words used as directed:

lie as a *verb.*
lie as a *noun.*
dry as a *verb.*
dry as an *adjective.*
clean as a *verb.*
clean as an *adjective.*
striking as a *verb.*
striking as an *adjective.*
striking as a *noun.*
well as a *noun.*
well as an *adjective.*
well as an *adverb.*
well as an *interjection.*
enough as an *adverb.*
enough as an *adjective.*
right as a *noun.*
right as an *adjective.*
fire as a *verb.*
brick as a *noun.*
brick as an *adjective.*
pick as a *noun.*
pick as a *verb.*
outside as a *noun.*
outside as an *adjective.*
sound as a *noun.*
sound as an *adjective.*
sound as a *verb.*
made as a *verb.*
made as a *verbal.*
reading as a *noun.*
reading as a *verbal.*
safe as an *adjective.*
safe as a *noun.*
stranger as a *noun.*
stranger as an *adjective.*
fire as a *noun.*

b. Select five words for yourself, each of which may be used as two or more different parts of speech, and use them as such in sentences.

CHAPTER II.

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

Lesson 53.

KINDS OF NOUNS.

We have seen from the foregoing that words are classified in syntax as different parts of speech, not from their etymology, but from their meaning and use in the sentence.

But some of these classes have subdivisions, and changes of form, which we study in order to understand language clearly and to use it correctly.

Let us first examine the nouns in the following:

I met a *child.*	Which child?	Harry.
He was from the *city.*	What city?	Los Angeles.
The *boys* are happy.	What boys?	Ned and Tom.
We will go some *day.*	What day?	Tuesday.
Saddle the *horse.*	Which horse?	Fleetfoot.
We climbed a *mountain.*	What mountain?	Mt. Shasta.

In the first column, each italicized noun may be applied to any one or to all of that class of objects. Hence

Such nouns are called **common nouns.**

Most things belong to some class, and can have a general, or class, name. But we sometimes wish to show more clearly which one of a class is meant, and therefore we must use a particular, or special, name, such as those in the third column.

Such names are called **proper nouns.**

People, countries, cities, rivers, and sometimes horses, dogs, etc., have both kinds of names.

Exercises:

a. Give a suitable proper noun instead of each of the following common nouns:

Brother, sister, mountain, cousin, dog, city, lake, mother, book, president, ocean, doctor.

b. Give the common or class name for each of the following proper nouns:

British America, Susie, Cape Horn, Mr. Black, Dash, Tecumseh, Fourth of July, Stockton, General Grant, Robinson Crusoe.

Notice (1) That some proper nouns are single words; as, *Susie, Dash, Stockton;* and that some are made up of two or more words; as, *British America, Cape Horn, Fourth of July.* In the latter case all the words together make the noun, because all are required to name the thing clearly.

Notice (2) That every proper noun and, usually, every word of a proper noun, begins with a capital letter.

c. Write a list of six common nouns, using three of them in sentences.

d. Write a list of six proper nouns composed of one word each, using three of them in sentences.

e. Write six proper nouns, of two or more words each, using capitals properly.

REMARK.—*When a proper name, as* **Clark, Milton,** *becomes partly common by applying it to more than one individual, it still retains its capital; as, The three* **Miss Clarks.** *There are not many* **Miltons.** *He was a new* **Milton** (*meaning such a poet as Milton*). *When an object is personified, that is, spoken of or spoken to as an individual, the noun becomes proper, and is written with a capital; as,* "*Thou hast all seasons for thine own, O* **Death.**"

Lesson 54.

KINDS OF NOUNS.

Exercise:

In the following sentences, select the common nouns and the proper nouns, and show why they are thus classified:

1. We quote from Professor Swett's "School Elocution."
2. There are maidens in Scotland, more lovely by far,
That would gladly be bride to the young Lochinvar.
3. Then hail the banner of the free
The starry Flower of Liberty!

4. Here, Tim, tell Ned Saunders he can't have the mare. Neighbor Derby wants her. 5. Backward, turn backward, O Time, in your flight.

6. "I came from Westminster Hall," replied the miller; "my name is Matthew Hale; I am Lord Chief Justice of the King's Bench." 7. Whence are thy beams, O Sun! thy everlasting light?

8. Love and tears for the Blue;
Tears and love for the Gray.

9. Judge not the Lord by feeble sense,
But trust him for his grace;
Behind a frowning Providence,
He hides a smiling face.

10. In one of Hans Christian Andersen's "Wonder Stories," entitled "The Ugly Duckling," he has written, in allegory, his own history.

Lesson 55.

Modifications of Nouns and Pronouns.

Some parts of speech change their relations and their form much more than other parts of speech, and sometimes a change in the office or form of one word requires a change in the form of one or more other words in the sentence. It is necessary to understand these modifications, in order to use the correct form, and to make the different parts of speech agree with one another.

[**Note to the Teacher.**—It is thought best, for purposes of brevity and for greater clearness, to teach the modifications of nouns and pronouns at the same time.]

Modification by Number.

1. *This nut is* good.
2. *These nuts are* good.
3. *That boy* hopped and *I* saw *him.*
4. *Those boys* hopped and *we* saw *them.*

Select the *nouns* and the *pronouns* in the above sentences, and tell whether each of them means *one* or *more than one.*

Compare number 2 with number 1, and number 4 with number 3, and notice that *other words* besides the nouns and pronouns are changed.

This modification of the noun or pronoun by which it changes its form to denote more than one, is called **Number.** As there are *two forms*, there are *two numbers.*

The *Singular Number* denotes one; as, *man, tree, she, it.*

The *Plural Number* denotes more than one; as, *men, trees, they.*

Lesson 56.

Formation of Plurals.

Is the noun *pen* singular or plural? Pronounce the last sound in the word *pen*. The last in *pens*. Join the two sounds. Now pronounce *pens*.

Do the same with *tree, desk, boot, table.*

Pronounce *box*. See if you can add the sound of *s* easily. What would be easier to pronounce? Why?

In the same way try *bush, fence* (silent e), *church.*

Rule I.—Nouns ending in a sound that will easily unite with the sound of *s*, form their plurals by adding *s* only; but if the last sound of the singular will not easily unite with that of *s*, then *es* is added.

Exercises:

a. Spell the plurals of the following and give the part of the rule that applies to each:

Sea, path, gas, lace (drop silent *e* and add *es*), chief, loss, fox, barge, ear, perch.

b. Write twelve nouns under each part of the rule.

c. Reconstruct the following sentences, changing the italicized words to the opposite number, and change any other words necessary to make the sentences sound well:

1. The *dog* is barking.
2. This *horse* is a noble animal.
3. That *bush* has grown rapidly.
4. Where were the *children?*
5. I want a *yard* of cloth.
6. The *boys* have lost their *hats.*

[**Note to the Teacher.**—The first rule is developed in full as a guide. Each succeeding rule should be developed by exercises of the same character. Drill exercises similar to those under Rules I. and II. should be given after each rule is developed.]

Rule II.—Common nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* to *i* and add *es;* but when the *y* is preceded by a vowel, *s* only is added; as,

Sing.	*Plu.*	*Sing.*	*Plu.*
fly	flies	key	keys
pony	ponies	valley	valleys
mercy	mercies	boy	boys

Exercises:

a. Pluralize the following, giving the rule for each:

Story, sky, turkey, spy, toy, donkey, colloquy, lady, tray.

REMARK.—*The letter* **u** *following* **q** *is* **always** *a consonant, having the sound of* **w**.

b. Write six examples of your own under each part of the rule. Select three from each list, and use them in sentences; then change the words used to the plural form, and rewrite the sentences.

Lesson 57.

FORMATION OF PLURALS.

Rule III.—(a) Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a *vowel* form their plurals regularly by adding *s;* as,

folio	folios	ratio	ratios	trio	trios
cameo	cameos	cuckoo	cuckoos	embryo	embryos

(b) Common English nouns ending in *o* preceded by a *consonant*, add *es;* as,

cargo	cargoes	motto	mottoes	hero	heroes
echo	echoes	potato	potatoes	buffalo	buffaloes

(c) Foreign nouns ending in *o* preceded by a *consonant*, add *s* only; as,

halo	halos	piano	pianos	octavo	octavos
lasso	lassos	solo	solos	memento	mementos

Some of this last class are spelled differently by different authorities; as,

Webster.	*Worcester.*
grottoes	grottos
porticoes	porticos
dominoes or dominos	dominos
quartos	quartos or quartoes

Rule IV.—(a) Compound nouns generally pluralize the most important part; as,

mouse-trap	mouse-traps	court-martial	courts-martial
wagon-load	wagon-loads	spoonful	spoonfuls
sister-in-law	sisters-in-law	cupful	cupfuls

REMARK.—**She drank two cupfuls,** *means one cup filled twice, or an amount equal to that.* **She has two cups full** *means two cups, each filled. In* **cupfuls** *the chief idea is the filling.*

(b) Some compounds pluralize both parts; as,

man-singer	men-singers	Knight-Templar	Knights-Templars
woman-servant	women-servants	man-child	men-children

(c) Some pluralize the last word without regard to the most important part; as,

forget-me-not	forget-me-nots	jack-a-lantern	jack-a-lanterns
piano-forte	piano-fortes	*tête-a-tête*	*tête-a-têtes*

Lesson 58.

FORMATION OF PLURALS.

Rule V.—(a) Proper nouns, when pluralized, add *s* or *es* and are generally preceded by the definite article; as,

The Crawfords; the Bushes.

REMARK.—*Proper nouns thus pluralized, as they apply to classes, are generally classified as* **common nouns.**

(b) When two or more persons of the same name and the same title are mentioned together, the best usage pluralizes the name and not the title, particularly if it is accompanied by an adjective of number; as,

The Miss Clarks; the three Mr. Hales.

(c) But when the names are different and the title the same, or when different Christian names are expressed, the title is pluralized and not the name; as,

Generals Howard and Sheridan; Messrs. Wells and Hatch; the Misses Eva and Frances Moody.

Rule VI.—The plurals of names of nations and societies should have the article prefixed; as,

The Germans; the Odd Fellows; the Masons.

Lesson 59.

Formation of Plurals.

Rule VII.—Foreign nouns, when anglicized, or made English, take plurals according to the English rules; other foreign nouns retain the plurals which they have in the original language; some, however, have both plural forms.

A few examples of foreign nouns in common use are given. The plurals of others may be found by referring to the dictionary:

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Alumnus	alumni	Genus	genera
Amanuensis	amanuenses	Gymnasium	gymnasiums or gymnasia
Analysis	analyses		
Apex	apexes or ap′icēs	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Axis	axēs	Ignis-fatuus	ignes-fatui
Appendix	appendixes or appen′dices	Larva	larvæ
		Monsieur	messieurs
Beau	beaus or beaux	Memorandum	memorandums or memoranda
Basis	bases		
Bandit	bandits or banditti	Nebula	nebulæ
Cherub	cherubs or cherubim	Nucleus	nuclei
Chrysalis	chrysal′ides	Oasis	oases
Crisis	crises	Parenthesis	parentheses
Datum	data	Phenomenon	phenomena
Ellipsis	ellipses	Radius	radii
Emphasis	emphases	Stamen	stamens or stamina
Erratum	errata	Stratum	stratums or strata
Formula	formulas or formulæ	Thesis	theses
Focus	focuses or foci	Vertebra	vertebræ
Fungus	funguses or fungi	Vortex	vortexes or vortices

Lesson 60.

Formation of Plurals.

Rule VIII.—Letters, marks, figures, etc., form their plurals by adding the apostrophe and *s;* as,

Dot your **i's** and cross your **t's.** The **4's** and the **1's** are not made carefully.

Irregular Plurals.

(a) Some nouns and pronouns change the word to form the plural.

NOUNS.		PRONOUNS.	
Sing.	*Plu.*	*Sing.*	*Plu.*
man	men	I	we
woman	women	mine	ours
foot	feet	me	us
goose	geese	thou	you
tooth	teeth	thee	you
louse	lice	it	they
mouse	mice	he	they
ox	oxen	she	they
child	children		

(b) Some are alike in both numbers; as,

Sheep, deer, swine, vermin, grouse, salmon, trout, apparatus, series, alms (generally plural), bellows, cannon, means, odds, species, amends, pains (care).

Apparatus and *cannon* have also a regular plural.

(c) Some are always plural; as,

Annals, ashes, assets, billiards, bitters, cattle, clothes, eaves, hose, hysterics, nuptials, pinchers, riches, remains, scissors, shears, snuffers, statistics, thanks, tongs, tidings, trousers, tweezers, victuals, vitals.

Dregs, embers, lungs, oats, stairs, though used chiefly in the plural have also a singular form.

(d) Some are always singular; such as the names of **Metals;** as, *gold, copper:* **Virtues;** as, *kindness, honesty:* **Vices;** as, *intemperance, dishonesty:* **Arts;** as, *painting, sculpture:* **Sciences;** as, *chemistry, physics:* **Abstract qualities;** as, *hardness, elasticity:* **Names of substances;** as, *sugar, oil,* etc.

But nouns denoting different kinds of substances may be pluralized; as,

The *wines*, *grapes*, and *fruits* of the New World.

Lesson 61.

Formation of Plurals.

(e) Some nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change *f* to *v* and add *s* or *es;* as,

calf	calves	wife	wives	beef	beeves
knife	knives	elf	elves	half	halves
loaf	loaves	leaf	leaves	life	lives
shelf	shelves	self	selves	sheaf	sheaves
wharf	wharfs *or* wharves	wolf	wolves	thief	thieves

Others ending in *f* or *fe* add *s* only; as,

dwarf	dwarfs	scarf	scarfs	reef	reefs
brief	briefs	chief	chiefs	grief	griefs
handkerchief	handkerchiefs	gulf	gulfs	safe	safes
fife	fifes	strife	strifes	proof	proofs
hoof	hoofs	reproof	reproofs	muff	muffs
flagstaff	flagstaffs				

(f) When other parts of speech become nouns, if they take a plural, it is formed regularly; as,

At *sixes* and *sevens*. The *ifs* and the *buts*.

(g) Some nouns have two plurals of different meanings; as,

Singular.	*Regular Plural.*	*Irregular Plural.*
brother	brothers (of a family)	brethren (of a society)
die	dies (stamps for coining)	dice (cubes for gaming)
genius	geniuses (men of genius)	genii (spirits)
head	heads (parts of the body)	head (of cattle)
index	indexes (tables of contents)	indices (algebraic exponents)
pea	peas (distinct grains)	pease (taken in bulk)
penny	pennies (distinct coins)	pence (an amount of money)
sail	sails (pieces of canvas)	sail (vessels)

Caution.—*Nouns ending in* **man**, *when not compounds, should be pluralized regularly; as,* Germans, Mussulmans, talismans.

Lesson 62.

Collective Nouns.

I saw a **flock** *of birds, a* **band** *of sheep, a* **drove** *of horses.*

The words *flock, band,* and *drove* are singular, for there may be two or more *flocks, bands,* or *droves;* yet each of these words, in its singular form, expresses the idea of a number of individuals. So, such words as

audience, assembly, committee,

express an idea of many, though singular in form. Such nouns are called *collective* nouns. Therefore:

A Collective Noun is a noun that, in its singular form, names a collection of persons or things.

(h) When the individuals are spoken of together, as a whole, the collective noun is singular, but it may also take a regular plural; as,

The *audience* is large. The lecturer drew large *audiences.*

(i) When a collective noun of the singular form is taken in a distributive sense, that is, when the individuals are thought of separately, it is plural in meaning, and its verb or pronoun must also have the plural form; as,

The *audience were* not able to agree upon a committee, so the chairman appointed one that suited *them* all.

The committee *were* divided in their opinions.

Lesson 63.

Exercises:

a. Tell whether each of the following is singular or plural, give the opposite number, when there is one, and state the rule for forming each:

Path, sugar, geniuses, valley, 9, mice, box, potato, sisters-in-law, policies, apparatus, spoonful, Messrs., measles, idleness, milk, engraving, beau, brother, gooseberry, solo, way, oases, genus, postoffices, Mr. Cook, men-servants, chief, angels, mother-in-law, Frances Hart and Nellie Hart (different form), Miss Hart and her sister (different form), tea, proof, kingdom, mathematics, tomato, morning, they, gentlemen, leaves, pianos, bridge, genii, chimneys, wives, axes, money, and, clothes.

b. Use the words *flock*, *band*, *drove*, correctly, with a singular verb or pronoun. Also with a plural verb or pronoun.

Lesson 64.

Modification by Person.

In the sentence,

I study my lesson,

I and *my* represent the speaker of the sentence.

In the sentence,

James, study your lesson,

James and *your* represent the person spoken to.

In the sentence,

He studies his lesson,

he and *his* represent the person spoken of.

Exercises:

a. Take the sentences in Lesson 54, and tell the *person* of each noun and pronoun used, calling of the *first person*, all that represent the speaker, of the *second person*, all that represent the person or thing spoken to, and of the *third person*, all that represent the person or thing spoken of.

Notice (1) that nearly all *nouns* are in the *third person*. When a noun does occur in the second person; as,

George, *come here,*

it is set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma, and is an independent word.

Nouns are sometimes used in the *first* person in legal forms; as,

"*I*, James Smith, *being of sound mind,*"

and in the Bible; as,

"*I*, Paul, beseech you."

Notice (2) that most *pronouns* use different words to show the different persons; as, *we, you, they,* while nouns remain the same in all persons.

Were it not that the person of the noun sometimes affects the pronoun and the verb; as,

Henry do your *work,* *Henry* does his *work,*

it would be unnecessary to say anything about the person of nouns.

b. Give the person of the nouns and of the pronouns in the following:

1. My teacher asked me to hand this book to you. 2. Now, Preston, show your father the letter you have written. 3. I am but a servant; you are the master. 4. We pupils have little hope of understanding that which puzzles our teacher. 5. I, John, saw these things.

Lesson 65.

MODIFICATION BY GENDER.

The **husband**, instead of the **wife**, should do the heavy work, for **he** is stronger than **she**.

I saw a **lion** and a **lioness**; **he** was looking at **his** mate, and **she** was fondling **her** cubs.

Examine the words *husband* and *wife; lion* and *lioness;* also the pronouns representing these nouns.

The distinction you observe here, is called **gender.**

Gender, then, is that modification of nouns and pronouns which shows the sex of the animate object named.

As there are two sexes, *male* and *female*, there are two corresponding genders, *masculine* and *feminine.*

Most nouns and some pronouns; as, *tree*, *book*, *fence*, *it*, etc., show that the object represented has no sex. These words, for convenience, are commonly said to be of the *neuter* gender, because they have *neither* gender. This, however, except in the case of the pronoun *it*, is not a modification, but rather the *absence* of a change of form.

To these three genders there are three corresponding pronouns,—masculine *he*, feminine *she*, neuter *it*.

In the study of language, the only purpose in determining the gender of a noun is to decide what pronoun to use to represent the noun.

REMARK. *1. The singular pronouns of the first and of the second person, as they represent, respectively, the speaker and the person spoken to (both supposed to be present), have no modification of gender.*

2. The plural pronouns, as they may represent persons of either gender, have no gender form. With these are classed such nouns as **parent, chil-**

dren, cattle, birds, *etc., for these words, although they represent animate objects, having sex, have in themselves nothing to determine their gender. They have sometimes been called of the* **common** *gender, but there being no corresponding pronoun the distinction seems unnecessary. Either say nothing about the gender, or say that it can not be determined.*

There are three chief ways of distinguishing the masculine gender from the feminine gender:

(1) *By different words.*		(2) *By different terminations.*		(3) *By prefixing or affixing words to distinguish the sex.*	
man	woman	tiger	tigress	landlord	landlady
nephew	niece	prince	princess	man-servant	maid-servant
earl	countess	hero	heroine	gentleman	gentlewoman

REMARK.—*Many of the feminine forms ending in* **ess** *are becoming obsolete.*

He is the masculine pronoun, and *she* the feminine.

When a noun is applicable to either sex, the masculine pronoun is employed, unless there is something else to indicate that the female sex is meant; as,

Every **passenger** must now pay **his** fare.
In a nunnery every **one** must do **her** duty.

When objects possessing no sex are personified or given the characteristics of either sex, they take the corresponding pronoun; things noted for *power, strength*, etc., the masculine; those noted for *grace, beauty, productiveness*, etc., the feminine; as,

The **sun** sheds **his** beams upon all. (power)
The **moon** sheds **her** silver light. (beauty)

Small animals and young children are generally represented by the pronoun *it*.

Lesson 66.

MODIFICATION BY GENDER.

Exercises:

a. Give the gender of the following, and name the noun or the pronoun, if any, of the opposite gender:

Nephew, songstress, widow, count, friend, him, lord, queen, duke, nun, bridegroom, hero, wife, actor, witch, mountain, tiger, daughter, heiress, male descendant.

b. Write sentences containing the following:

1. A pronoun in the third person, singular number, feminine gender.
2. A proper noun in the third person, masculine gender.
3. A pronoun in the first person, plural number.
4. A common noun in the third person, plural number, feminine gender.
5. A proper noun, second person, feminine gender.

Lesson 67.

THE OFFICE OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.
(Commonly called Case.)

Subject and Object.

Take the words

Stanley; the bear; chased;

and see if you can tell which chased the other, Stanley or the bear. Which is the subject and which the object?

Arrange them so that you can tell.

How do you know now? By the form of the noun, or by its position?

Change the position, and what becomes the subject?

Now make a sentence with the pronouns *he* and *them* and the verb *chased.*

Which is the subject?

Could the other pronoun be the subject? Why not?

How do you know? By the form of the pronoun, or by its position?

Again, take

"Awhile the stranger eyed the maid,"

what is the subject?

"Awhile the maid eyed the stranger,"

now what is the subject?

Conclusion: The subjective and the objective relations of *nouns* are shown by their *position.*

The office, or relation, of most *pronouns* is shown by their *form*, as well as by their *position.*

Exercises:

a. Analyze these sentences and tell the office of each noun:

1. The boy grew rapidly. 2. I met the boy. 3. That is the boy I met. 4. That one, the boy in blue, is he. 5. I am talking about that boy. 6. I am talking about that one, the boy in blue. 7. The boy's coat is blue.

Notice that the noun *boy* performs a different office in each of the foregoing sentences, but it does not change its form, except in (7).

Substitute the plural of *boy*, and you have the same result, except that (7) stands thus:

The boys' coats are blue.

Now substitute a pronoun for the singular noun *boy*, and you have *he, him, his.* Make the pronoun plural, and you have *they, their, them.* From this you see that these pronouns change their form with each change in office, while nouns change their form only in the possessive relation. It follows, therefore, that while few errors can be made in the use of *nouns*, great care must be taken in the use of pronouns.

b. Give the office of each noun and pronoun in the following:

1. I thank you for helping me. 2. Did you see us sliding down that hill? 3. He thinks you are the person who has done the mischief. 4. The messenger whom we sent yesterday has returned with our letters. 5. There goes my brother. Call him back, for he has started too early. 6. This garden is Frank's greatest delight.

Lesson 68.

Office of Nouns and Pronouns.

Apposition.

1. Mr. Howard, the *book-seller*, died last night.
Book-seller is used to show which Mr. Howard.

Mr. Howard (book-seller) died. (Explanatory word in parenthesis.)

the

2. We saw Mrs. Johnson, the *milliner*.
How is *milliner* used?

3. They, *they* alone, have the right to be happy.
The second *they* does not explain the first, but emphasizes it; so also with *himself* in (4) and (5).

4. Mr. Howard *himself* sold the book. 5. She met Joseph *himself*. 6. I will do it *myself*.

Nouns and pronouns used thus, merely to identify or to emphasize a preceding noun or pronoun, are said to be in **apposition** with it. *Apposition* means placed with or by.

Diagram emphatic nouns or pronouns like explanatory, as they are also appositional. See sentences 3 and 4.

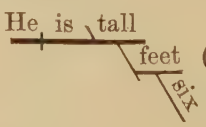
Nouns Used Adverbially.

Notice the italicized nouns:

1. He is six *feet* tall. 2. She walked three *miles*. 3. They arrived last *week*. 4. That is fifty *per cent* better.

The italicized nouns are used adverbially to modify a verb or an adjective, and show a measure of time, size, distance, etc. They have the relation of adverbs only.

Pronouns are never used in this way.



(noun used adverbially.)

Exercise:

Select the nouns and the pronouns in apposition and the nouns used adverbially in the following:

1. David, the shepherd boy, became king of Israel. 2. Last winter we read Ivanhoe, Scott's best novel. 3. The ride seemed ten miles long. 4. The Nile, the only river in Egypt, overflows its banks yearly. 5. The careless boy ought to sweep the room himself.

Lesson 69.

Office of Nouns and Pronouns.

Nouns used as Objects of Prepositions not Expressed.

1. Give *me* a penny=(to) me.

2. My father sent *Susie* a pony=(to) Susie.
3. They bought Hattie a piano=(for) Hattie.
4. The teacher asked them five questions=(of) them.

The italicized words in the above are objects of prepositions not expressed. If the preposition be supplied, it forms, with its object, an adverbial phrase, which must then be placed *after* the object complement; as,

Give a penny **to me.**

Supply the preposition in each of the above sentences, placing the phrase in its proper place.

REMARK.—*When the preposition is understood, but not expressed, its object precedes the object of the verb, and it is inelegant to express the preposition without transposing the parts.*

Composition Exercises:

a. Write six original sentences, two for each of the prepositions *to*, *for*, and *of*, but let the preposition be understood.

b. Supply the preposition in each sentence and transpose properly. Study to obtain smoothness and variety.

Lesson 70.

OFFICE OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

Attributes of the Object.

(See Lessons 24 and 25, Part I.)

1. *They call this flower a* **weed.**

Is the verb *call* complete or incomplete?

What is the office of *flower?*

Is the sense complete if we say, "*They call this flower?*"

The office of *weed*, then, is to help complete the sense of the verb *call* and to describe the flower.

In the lessons referred to we have learned that a word used in the predicate to describe or to identify the subject is an *attribute* of the subject. In the same way the object may have an attribute. Thus *weed* is another name applied to flower, and is, therefore, an attribute of flower.

2. *The President made Mr. Baxter* **governor.**

Governor helps to complete *made* and shows the office or position of *Mr. Baxter.*

That which helps to complete the verb and shows a peculiarity of the thing named by the object complement is called the **Attributive Object,** or **Attribute of the Object.**

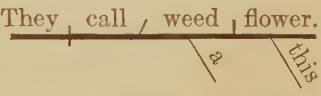
3. *We believed him to be a good* **doctor.**

Here *doctor* completes *to be* but describes *him,* in the same manner as *governor* describes *Mr. Baxter.*

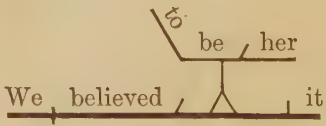
Note.—*The verbal* **to be** *could be inserted in 2, and it is very nearly implied in 1.*

4. *We believe it to be* **her.**

Here *her* completes *to be* and shows identity of *it,* hence *her* is an attribute of the object, and the whole phrase is an attributive object.



Note.—*The line before* **weed** *slants towards the object, because* **weed** *describes* **flower.**



Note.—*The lines before the phrase and* **her** *slant towards the object* **it,** *because* **her** *shows the identity of* **it.**

Lesson 71.

Office of Nouns and Pronouns.

Exercise:

a. Analyze and diagram each of the following:

1. They named the child Harold. 2. I consider you my friend. 3. I find this letter to be an expression of his opinions. 4. If you will come, we shall esteem it a great favor. 5. Howard made the prisoners his friends.

b. Write four original sentences containing attributive objects.

Lesson 72.

OFFICE OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

Possessives.

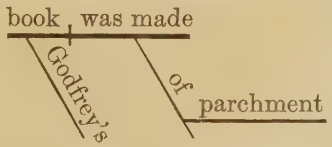
Harold's crown. What does *Harold's* show?
Coffman has *ladies'* gloves for sale. (kind)
We use *Howe's* sewing machine. (kind)
He received a *month's* wages. (amount)
His crown. (whose)
Their money. (whose)
My friend. (whose)

Notice that the noun, as well as the pronoun, here changes its form, although in a different way. This is called the possessive form ("case"), because it came originally from the idea of possession, which it always more or less directly indicates.

In analyzing sentences, these possessive nouns and pronouns are called *adjective elements*, because they limit nouns.

Diagram.

Godfrey's book was made of parchment.

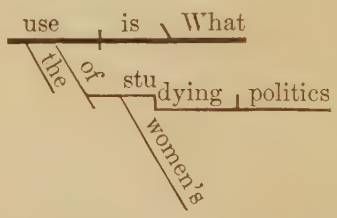


Have you heard of Watson running for office?
This sentence is incorrect. It means:
Have you heard of that action (*running for office*) as belonging to Watson?
It should be expressed thus:
Have you heard of Watson's running for office?
Write, as above, the meaning of the following:
Do you know of Wilson's being sick?

In the same way give the reason for the possessive form in the following:

1. What need is there of a *boy's* using tobacco? 2. A late frost was the cause of the *leaves'* curling. 3. *My* going at that time was a fortunate occurrence. (Not *me* going.) 4. What is the use of *women's* studying politics?

Diagram.



Note.—*The line is broken because* **studying** *is part noun and part verb.*

Thus you see that although the possessive generally limits a noun, it may also, to prevent ambiguity, limit a verbal used partly as a noun.

The possessive idea may be expressed in still other ways, and these help to avoid unpleasant repetition and give a pleasing variety to our language.

Examples:

1. The house *of* Mr. Babcock.
2. The *court* house=court's house.
3. The *state* laws=state's laws.
4. The place *belonging to* Mrs. Mitchell.

In (1) possession is shown by the preposition *of;* in (2) and (3) by an adjective form making a sort of compound noun; in (4) by the words *belonging to.*

REMARK.—*Such expressions as* **court house, city police,** *etc., have been so long in use that the apostrophe has been worn out, and is no longer expressed. See also idiomatic possessives in Lesson 92.*

Lesson 73.

Rules of Syntax, and Cautions.

Nouns and Pronouns.

I. All nouns not used adjectively to indicate possession are in the nominative, or name, form; as,

The **dog** is here. (subject) I saw a **dog.** (object)

See also the noun **boy** in sentences 1–7, Lesson 67.

II. A noun or a pronoun used adjectively to limit a noun or a verbal, by indicating possession, origin, etc., is in the possessive form; as,

Henry's top. **My** top. **Our** going.

III. The possessive singular of nouns is formed by adding an apostrophe and s; as, *girl*, *girl's;* the possessive plural by adding an apostrophe only; as, *girls'*, except in irregular plurals not ending in *s*, which are then formed like the singular possessive; as, *men*, *men's.*

Exception.—Even singular nouns sometimes omit the *s* after the apostrophe, when there would be an unpleasant repetition of hissing sounds; as,

The **Princess'** *slippers.*

IV. The possessive pronouns never take an apostrophe, but change the word; as,

he, his; I, my; it, its; who, whose.

V. When one possessive is in apposition with another, give the possessive form to the one nearest the noun they limit; as,

I found it at **Smith,** the **jeweler's,** store.

Remark.—*Some prefer to give the sign to the first of the possessives in apposition, particularly when the second has many adjuncts; as,*

I read an essay of **Bacon's,** the most eminent English **philosopher.**

VI. When connected nouns show joint possession of the same thing or set of things, the possessive sign should be given to the one only that is nearest the noun they limit; as,

Wheeler and **Wilson's** sewing machine.

VII. Connected nouns showing separate possession should have the sign given to each; as,

Duncan's money and not **Frank's.**

Note.—*Notice that when you can repeat the noun limited, you should repeat the possessive sign; otherwise, use but one sign. The above equals* **Duncan's** *money and not* **Frank's** *money.*

VIII. A noun or a pronoun used to limit a verbal should have the possessive form; as,

There is no use of **your** swearing or of any **man's** swearing.

REMARK.—*Compound nouns, and some groups of words equivalent to compounds, have the possessive sign given to the part nearest the word limited; as,* father-in-**law's** house; the king of **Burmah's** jewels; nobody **else's** things, or, *as preferred by some grammarians,* **nobody's** else things.

Lesson 74.

POSSESSIVE FORMS.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nominative form,	baby	babies
Possessive form,	baby's	babies'
Nominative form,	wife	wives
Possessive form,	wife's	wives'

REMARK.—*The objective form of nouns is the same as the nominative.*

Exercise:

In the same way, (1) write the Nominative form and the Possessive form of each of the following, (2) give the reason for writing each Possessive as you do, and (3) use the Possessives in sentences:

Brother, morning, child, fox, chief, lady, kingdom, sister-in-law, mouse, gentlemen.

Lesson 75.

POSSESSIVE FORMS.

Exercises:

a. In the following tell what each expression means, and show why the possessive is formed as it is:

1. George the IV's temper. 2. The children's father has come. 3. You will find it at Willard's, Hale's, or Cook's. (Three stores) 4. You will find it at Smith and Tyler's. (Store) 5. The Mayor of New York's influence is great. 6. I should like somebody else's opinion. 7. Was Peter's occupation the same as Andrew's? 8. Do you use Brown's grammar or Reed and Kellogg's? 9. This piece of land is Mr. Jones's. 10. The governor of California's term of office is four years. 11. Do this for conscience' sake if not for honor's. 12. The places belonging to her two brothers-in-law were both flooded.

b. Change as many as you can of the possessives in the above sentences to some equivalent expression, without producing awkwardness.

Lesson 76.

Possessive Forms.

Exercises:

a. Correct the following, and state the rule for each:

1. Do you use Robinson or Ray's arithmetic? 2. Mr. Hart is the childrens' friend. 3. My book's are better than her's. 4. The general's servants came on before them. (Two generals) 5. Was Cain's and Abel's mother there? 6. I intended to meet you at Mr. Welch's the bookseller's store.

b. Change to more elegant forms:

1. Lazarus's sister. 2. Robert's wife's mother's sorrow. 3. An account of the proceedings of the Teachers' Association of the State of California. 4. That house's windows. 5. For conscience's sake. 6. The city's police. 7. The county's jail.

Lesson 77.

Declinable Pronouns.

We say:

I *am seen,*	**We** *are seen.*
My *book,*	**Our** *books.*
William sees **me.**	*William sees* **us.**

Here you see the different forms of the pronoun *I* corresponding to the different offices it performs.

	Sing.	*Plu.*
Nominative,	I	we
Possessive,	my or mine	our or ours
Objective,	me	us

There are a few pronouns, seven only, that change their form in this way. When these changes are arranged as above, so as to show conveniently what form is used, the process is called **declension,** and the pronouns that change their form thus are called **declinable pronouns.** The declinable pronouns are *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *who*, and *whoever*.

Some pronouns do not change; as, *which*, *that*, etc.

Declension.

	Sing.	*Plu.*
Nominative,	thou	ye or you
Possessive,	thy or thine	your or yours
Objective,	thee	you
Nominative,	he	they
Possessive,	his	their or theirs
Objective,	him	them
Nominative,	she	they
Possessive,	her or hers	their or theirs
Objective,	her	them
Nominative,	it	they
Possessive,	its	their or theirs
Objective,	it	them

	Sing. or Plu.
Nominative,	who
Possessive,	whose
Objective,	whom

Nominative,	whoever or whosoever
Possessive,	whosesoever or whosever
Objective,	whomsoever or whomever

Note.—*The words* **whosever** *and* **whomever,** *though not given in standard dictionaries, are sanctioned by good usage.*

Lesson 78.

Rules of Syntax.

Pronouns.

IX. A declinable pronoun used, (1) as the subject of a verb, (2) as attribute of the subject, or (3) in apposition with any of these, is in the nominative form; as,

(1) **We** are going. (2) It is **I**. (3) Mr. French, **he** who helped us yesterday, is president of the society.

X. A declinable pronoun used independently is in the nominative form; as,

Oh, happy **we**! **He** being absent, we came away.

XI. A declinable pronoun used, (1) objectively, or (2) as attribute of an object, or (3) in apposition with any of these, is in the objective form; as,

(1) Let **us** go. (2) He thought the stranger to be **me**. (3) I mean Joseph, **him** whom Pharaoh promoted.

Remark.—*It will be seen that an attribute noun or pronoun is generally in the same form as the word to which it refers, but such sentences as the following appear to be exceptions, for here the attribute after a verbal refers to a possessive and yet is in the nominative form:* I have no doubt of its being **he**. (**He** *refers to possessive* **its**.) *To say, I have no doubt of its being* **his** *conveys an entirely different thought.*

[**Note to the Teacher.**—Naming and describing in full the relations of the different parts of a sentence to one another is called *analyzing.*

Indicating these relations by lines and position is called *diagraming.*

Naming the parts of speech and giving their variations of form, and at the same time designating the relation of each to other words is called *parsing.*

To give the part of speech of a word and its relation, with the government and agreement, if there be any, is to *construe* a word, or to give its *construction* (*i. e.*, how it is *built into* the sentence).

A sentence, then, may be diagramed or analyzed; the words in the sentence may be parsed in full or construed only.

To give to a pupil the ability to understand at once and clearly the full meaning of a sentence and the force of each word in the sentence, *complete analysis* is by far the most valuable exercise. If the pupil is

required to state these relations clearly and tersely, the exercise is also a valuable drill in the use of language.

Diagraming has the advantage of allowing many pupils to work at the same time, and to express their understanding of a sentence more briefly than in a full analysis, but it does not give the same culture in oral expression.

Parsing is a convenient method of drill upon the classification of words, changes in their form, and their relation to the rest of the sentence, but it is of little or no value unless done rapidly enough to incite the pupil to quick and accurate thought in the application of correct forms in composition. For this reason, drill upon changes in form and upon the rules is the most practical part of parsing. But perhaps the exercise of the greatest value in a grammar class, is to require the pupil to give the *construction* of such words as the teacher may designate, for this shows at once and briefly whether the pupil understands the sentence and grasps the essential points of relation and inflection.

In parsing and in giving the construction of words, the constant application of the rules and cautions will impress them upon the memory, and will work out the desirable end of giving to the pupil the *results* of the rules as well as the rules themselves.]

Lesson 79.

Parsing Nouns.

Exercise:

Parse the nouns in the sentences below after the following formula:

Form for parsing nouns. . . . .
- Classify.
- Changes of form. { Common. / Possessive. } *Sing.* *Plu.*
- Person, Number, Gender.
- Use in sentence.
- Rule.

1. Harry, where is Ben's father? 2. One day a hungry fox was prowling around in search of food. 3. The Bushman uses a bow and arrow to shoot with. 4. The hen flew at the little girl's face. 5. Tabby crawled into the basket to steal a fish, but she got the end of her tail into the lobster's big claw. 6. What boy would rob a bird's nest? 7. Pronounce the word *aged*. 8. A bird's home is in a tree or under the eaves or in the chimney.

Lesson 80.

ERRORS IN CONSTRUCTION.

Exercise:

Correct the following after this

MODEL:

Him and her quarreled.

This sentence is incorrect, because *him*, used as one of the subjects of the verb *quarreled*, has the objective form, violating the rule: "A declinable pronoun used as the subject of a verb should be in the nominative form." The nominative form of *him* is *he*. Corrected, He and —— quarreled. Correct *her* in a similar way.

Learn this condensed form for correcting:

Incorrect, because ———— here used ———— has the ———— form, violating the rule: "The ————————."
The ———— of ———— is ————.
Corrected, ———————— ————.

[To the Teacher.—Have the following sentences written out fully in the correct form in note books kept by the pupils for this purpose, and have the correct form read frequently without the reasons, so that this form, instead of the false one, may make a lasting impression.]

1. They that study diligently I will reward. 2. Cain's and Abel's mother was Eve. 3. That horses' hoof is injured. 4. The teacher said this was for you and I. 5. I have been reading an essay of Bacon's, the philosopher's. 6. His fathers' worth assisted him. 7. The blame was thrown from my shoulders to Mason. 8. The fault lies between you and she. 9. Who did it come from? 10. I found this book at Bancroft's the publisher's. 11. You shall ride on horseback after we. 12. I knew that it was him; who did you take him to be? 13. There is no fear of its being her. 14. They desired him and I to go. 15. Is there any need of him being so cruel? 16. I had no idea of it snowing to-day. 17. Some thought it was her. 18. Do you know whom it is? 19. There is no telling who he will call next.

Lesson 81.

SUPPLEMENTARY ANALYSIS.

As was shown in Lesson 70, a noun or a pronoun may be used

as the attribute of the object, and is then called the *attributive object;* as,

They named the girl **Virginia.**
We call him **Sir Tristram.**

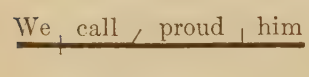
But nouns and pronouns are not the only forms of expression that can perform this office of helping to complete the verb or verbal by expressing some characteristic of the object.

Give the office of the italicized words below:

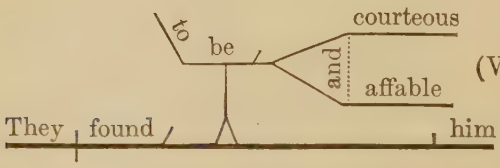
1. We call him *proud.* 2. They thought her *frivolous.* 3. They found him to be *courteous and affable.* 4. I knew it to be *him.* 5. *Whom* did you take him to be? 6. He found his daughter *grown to womanhood.*

Thus you see that adjectives and phrases, as well as nouns and pronouns, may be used as attributes of the object.

Diagrams.

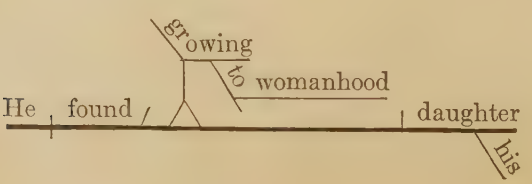


(Adjective used as attribute of the object.)



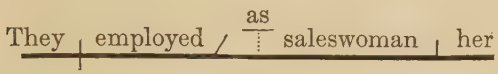
(Verbal phrase.)

Note.—*The line before* **courteous** *and* **affable** *slants towards* **him,** *because those adjectives describe* him; *as also does the whole phrase.*

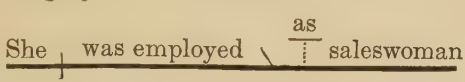


Sometimes the attribute of the subject or of the object is idiomatically introduced by the conjunction *as*.

They employed her **as** *saleswoman.*



She was employed **as** *saleswoman.*



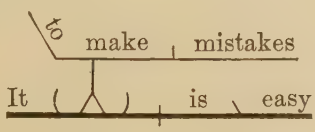
Lesson 82.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND DIAGRAMING.

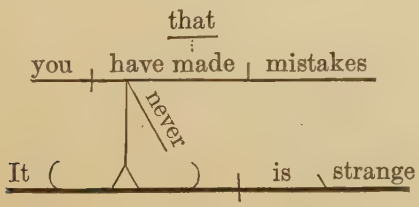
You learned in Lesson 68 that a noun or a pronoun can explain a preceding noun or pronoun. Now notice the following:

1. *It* is easy. What is easy?
   It is easy *to make mistakes.*
2. *It* is strange. What is strange?
   It is strange *that you have never made mistakes.*
3. The thought *that he had made a grave mistake* haunted him continually.

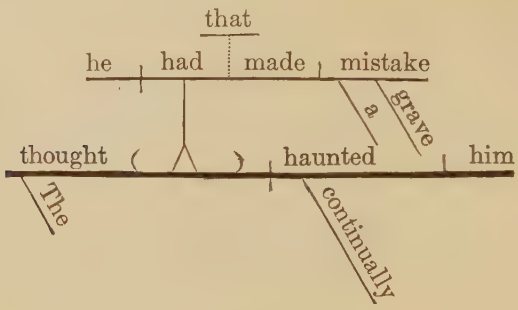
1. Explanatory phrase:



2. Explanatory clause:



3. Explanatory clause:



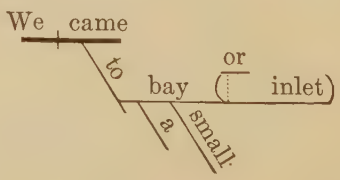
Lesson 83.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND DIAGRAMING.

Or sometimes connects parts that are in apposition; as,

We came to a small **bay,** *or* **inlet.**

Notice the comma before the explanatory term.



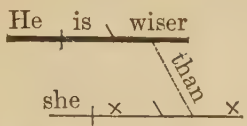
Lesson 84.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND DIAGRAMING.

When an ellipsis occurs, and the word or words are clearly understood, use in the diagram a small cross (×) in place of each word to be supplied.

Go! = X Go

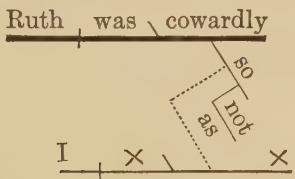
He is wiser than she (is wise).



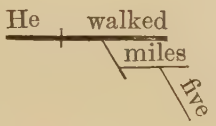
Note.—*Some consider* **than** *a conjunctive adverb, others a pure conjunction.*

There is frequently an ellipsis after *than* or *as* used in expressing comparison:

Ruth was not so cowardly as I (was cowardly).



When the noun is used adverbially to show a measure of weight, distance, value, etc., no preposition is needed. Use no cross.



REMARK.—*Good usage has established the idiom* **went home,** *but when* **home** *has an adjunct, the preposition is supplied; as,*

He went **to** his own home.

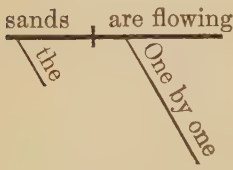
In this respect, **home** *differs from other nouns used adverbially.*

Lesson 85.

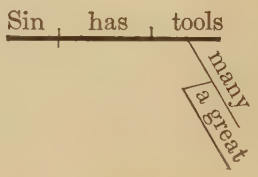
EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND DIAGRAMING.

There are in good use some combinations, the words of which can not be disposed of separately. These are called **idioms.**

One by one *the sands are flowing.*



(Idiomatic phrase used adverbially.)

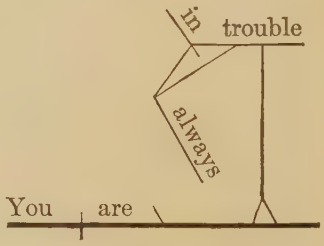


Sin has **a great** *many tools.*

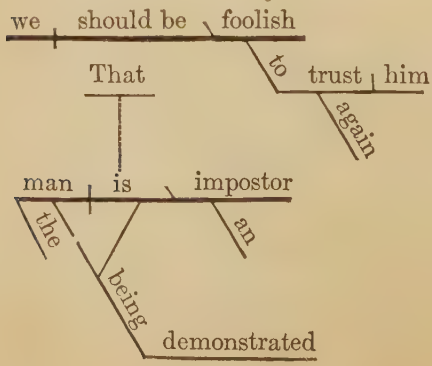
(Idiomatic phrase used adverbially.)

An adjunct may modify a whole phrase or a whole assertion.

You are always in trouble.



That the man is an impostor being demonstrated, we should be foolish to trust him again.



(A verbal limiting a whole clause used as a noun.)

Note.—*Place the absolute phrase below the predicate* **should be foolish,** *because it logically modifies the predicate, being abridged from an adverbial clause of reason. But as the conjunction has been dropped, there is no* **grammatical** *connection.*

Lesson 86.

Sentences for Analysis and Diagrams.

1. I thought the man a friend. (Attribute of the object) 2. They pronounced her insane. 3. I felt my fingers becoming numb. 4. You knew her to be unfortunate. 5. They christened the child Judith. 6. You will find her to be a kind and loving mother. 7. He is employed as book-keeper at Smith's. 8. Smith employs him as book-keeper. 9. It is evident that he served as captain in the Mexican War. (Explanatory clause) 10. To argue down a vice is not the way to correct it. 11. The grammatical predicate, or word-predicate, is always a verb. 12. Hurrah, hurrah for Ivry and Henry of Navarre! (Consider *hurrah* a verb here.)

13. What matter if you fall? (Supply the ellipsis.)

14. What though upon her speech there hung
The accents of the mountain tongue?

15. Wilton was not so foolish as that.

16. "A stranger I," the huntsman said,
Advancing from the hazel shade. (Parts transposed)

Lesson 87.

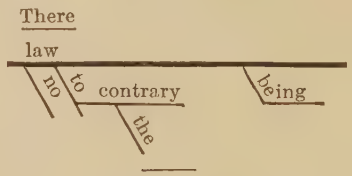
Analysis and Diagrams.

1. Hand me the boat-hook, boys. (*To* understood) 2. That branch is six inches longer than it was last week; so rapid is the semi-tropical growth in California.

3. Now, man to man, and steel to steel,
A chieftain's vengeance thou shalt feel.

4. A boy is always in a hurry to become a man. (*Always* modifies the whole phrase *in a hurry.*) 5. The brain is constantly at work. (=constantly working) 6. Charles Lamb was seldom in earnest. 7. What by work and what by economy, he has succeeded in amassing quite a fortune. 8. This fact having been announced, the messenger withdrew. 9. The fact that they could not have a holiday having been announced, the messenger withdrew. 10. Now it was, you observe, that the kettle began to spend the evening. 11. There was all the excitement of a race. 12. There being no law to the contrary, the cattle were allowed to graze on the common. (*There* is an expletive used to intro-

duce the absolute phrase. *There being no law to the contrary*=no law to the contrary existing.)



Lesson 88.

Analysis and Diagrams.

Saint Augustine! well hast thou said,
That of our vices we can frame
A ladder, if we will but tread
Beneath our feet each deed of shame!

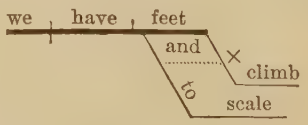
All common things, each day's events
That with the hour begin and end,
Our pleasures and our discontents,
Are rounds by which we may ascend.

Notice that there are several appositional terms in this stanza.

* * * * * * * * *

We have not wings, we cannot soar;
But we have feet to scale and climb,
By slow degrees, by more and more,
The cloudy summits of our time.

To scale and climb is a verbal phrase, compound adjunct of *feet.*



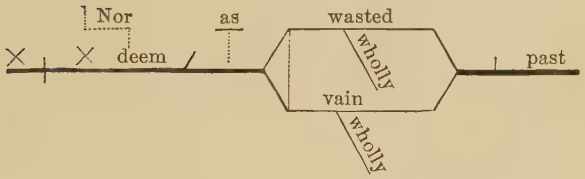
The heights by great men reached and kept
Were not attained by sudden flight,
But they, while their companions slept
Were toiling upward in the night.

Standing on what too long we bore
With shoulders bent and downcast eyes,

We may discern—unseen before—
A path to higher destinies.

Nor deem the irrevocable Past
As wholly wasted, wholly vain,
If, rising on its wrecks, at last
To something nobler we attain.

—*H. W. Longfellow.*



CHAPTER III.

PRONOUNS.

Lesson 89.

Antecedents.

[**To the Teacher.**—The topics of Pronouns and Verbs are the two most difficult and most instructive in the whole subject of English Grammar, because these parts of speech undergo many changes in signification, use, and form; and even when there is no change in the form of the pronoun, there is often a change in meaning that needs to be clearly understood by the pupil, in order that he may have a correct appreciation of language. And some of these changes, as in the number and person of the pronouns *who* and *that*, affect, not the form of the pronoun, but the form of the verb following; as, I who *write*. Thou that *writest*. He that *writes*. They that *write*. There is no better field than this for the training of the power of discrimination.]

Show what each italicized pronoun in the following sentences represents:

1. **General Grant** completed *his* book before *he* died.
2. This **hat** *that* looks so shabby was good enough when *it* was bought.
3. **To be kind to one's neighbor** is right, but *it* is not the whole duty of man.
4. **That Cortez conquered Mexico** is true, but *it* is sometimes doubted.
5. The **man** *who* thinks *himself* wisest is the most ignorant.

The preceding substantive word, phrase, or clause for which the pronoun stands is called its *antecedent*, from *ante*=before+*cedere*=to go.

Exercise:

In the following sentences point out the pronouns and their antecedents, and notice what are most frequently used as antecedents:

1. Among the Jews, education was restricted to the family, in which the father was the principal teacher. 2. The ocean is not the idle creature that it seems, with its vast and lazy length stretched between the continents. 3. It is my living sentiment, and it shall be my dying sentiment: independence now, and independence forever.

4. Soldier, rest! thy warfare o'er,
Sleep the sleep that knows not breaking.

5. The song that is the sweetest is the song that's never sung. 6. "There," said the Indian, addressing the officer, "are your countrymen; there is the enemy who waits to give us battle. Remember that I have saved your life."

7. Yet this is Rome,
That sat on her seven hills, and from her throne
Of beauty ruled the world!

8. The branches of a pair of antlers served as hooks on which to hang hats and spurs. 9. There sat the very man for whom the captain and his men had searched far and near. 10. The aunt, who was one of the best tellers of ghost-stories in all Germany, had just been recounting one of her longest, and had fallen asleep in the very midst of it.

Lesson 90.

Personal Pronouns.

In some sentences, as in the following, the pronoun has no antecedent expressed. Point out the pronouns:

1. I am learning to think.
2. Why are you doing it?
3. Where is he going now?
4. Get it for yourself, not for me.
5. She despised herself for her cowardice.

Give the *person* of each pronoun in the above sentences.

You see that it is not always necessary to have the antecedent expressed in order to tell the person of pronouns. But when the antecedent is expressed, the pronoun must be so chosen as to represent it correctly.

(a) I who write this do it freely.
(b) You who write this do it freely.
(c) He who writes this does it freely.

In (a) *who* represents the first person; in (b) the second person; in (c) the third person.

It will be seen, therefore, that some pronouns do not show by their form of what person they are.

Which pronouns *do* show by their form of what person they are? See Lesson 77.

Person, *as here used, means, not an individual, but the grammatical modification called person.*

These pronouns are, therefore, called **personal pronouns,** because each shows its *person* by its *form.*

The personal pronouns are *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, and *it*, with their different forms and compounds.

REMARK.—*The personal pronouns have also a distinct form for number. Singular,* **he**; *plural,* **they.**

The pronoun **it** *is often used without a true antecedent, and may have a phrase or a clause which explains it, and which, coming after, is really its* subsequent; *as,*

It is very easy to find *fault.*

If the sentence be re-arranged it may mean very nearly the same thing, and the **it** *disappears. Thus:*

To find fault is very easy.

In the above construction **it** *seems to be an expletive. As this use comes under no rule of language, being merely a peculiarity of expression attending this word, it is called an* **idiom,** *and the expression is* **idiomatic.**

Another idiomatic use of the same word is found in such expressions as:

It rains. It is very cold.

There is no definite word for which the pronoun, if it is indeed a pronoun here, stands. The construction, aside from its agreement, is very simple, and of agreement nothing, in this case, need be said.

Lesson 91.

Exercises:

a. Review the declension of each of the simple personal pronouns, Lesson 77.

b. Make sentences, using the following forms of the personal pronouns:

1. First person, singular, nominative.
2. First, singular, objective.
3. Third, masculine, singular, nominative.
4. Third, masculine, singular, possessive.
5. Second, singular, possessive.
6. First, plural, objective.
7. Third, feminine, objective.
8. First, singular, possessive.
9. Third, masculine, plural, nominative.
10. Second, plural, objective.

c. Fill the blanks with suitable pronouns, and see how

many different pronouns you can find that might be correctly used in each blank:

1. They sent Mary and ——— to school. 2. Let John and ——— go home. 3. May, Willie, and ——— study grammar. 4. They all left but ——— and ———. 5. ——— pupils are studying language. 6. The teacher told ——— boys to use our common sense. 7. The difference between you and ——— is, you study the theory of language while I practice it. 8. Who tore my book? ———. 9. John is taller than ———. 10. ——— expect ——— to be present. 11. ——— expects ——— and ——— to be present. 12. Who is there? ———. 13. That book is ———. 14. ——— hats lie on ——— table.

Lesson 92.

Possessive Pronouns.

By the declension of the personal pronouns, Lesson 77, you see that there are two forms for all the possessives except *his* and *its*, the third singular, masculine, and neuter.

Examine these sentences and notice how the possessives are used, calling

my, our, thy, your, his, her, its, their,

the first form, and

mine, ours, thine, yours, hers, theirs,

the second form:

1. My father was a soldier. 2. Henry found your ball. 3. Honor thy father and thy mother. 4. We should obey our parents. 5. The child has lost its rattle. 6. I will use Henry's ball, and he may use mine. 7. Have you found yours? 8. Theirs is much better than ours. 9. Your failure, not hers, is the cause of my anxiety. 10. Thine is the glory.

Rule.—Use the first form of the possessive pronouns when the noun limited is expressed after the possessive, and the second when the noun is not expressed after the possessive.

Exercise:

Make sentences of your own, using both forms of all the possessive personal pronouns.

The second form of the possessive generally equals the possessive and the noun it limits, as in the sentences:

I will ride your horse, and you may ride mine. (my horse)
She stole your purse, but has she theirs? (their purse)

REMARK.—*In solemn style,* **mine** and **thine** *are frequently used before words beginning with a vocal sound;* as, **mine eyes; thine enemies.**

Exceptions.—*The expression,* **that letter of mine** *equals* **that letter of my letters** *or* **that one of my letters,** *but* **this friend of mine** *can not be expanded in the first way, for* **this friend of my friends** *means something quite different from* **this one of my friends.**

This heart of mine, That mouth of thine, *are still more idiomatic and can not be expanded with sense, for a person has but one heart and but one mouth.*

Lesson 93.

Composition Exercise—Quick Oral Work.

[**Note to the Teacher.**—The following is the practical application of declension. If done rapidly it will be very profitable, and will be enjoyed by the pupils.]

Give sentences containing the personal pronouns, as follows:

Possessives.

1. First form, first person, singular.
2. First form, second person, plural.
3. Third person, masculine, singular.
4. Third person, neuter, singular.
5. Third person, feminine, singular.
6. First form, third person, plural.
7. Second form, third person, plural.
8. Second form, first person, plural.
9. Second form, second person, plural.
10. First form, second person, singular, solemn style.

Miscellaneous.

11. Nominative, singular, third person, masculine.
12. First person, nominative, singular.
13. First person, objective, singular.
14. First person, nominative, plural.
15. First person, possessive, plural, first form.
16. Second person, solemn style, nominative, singular.
17. Third person, masculine, possessive, singular.
18. Second person, common style, nominative, singular.
19. Third person, masculine, possessive, plural, first form.

20. Second person, common style, possessive, plural, second form.
21. Second person, objective, plural.
22. Third person, neuter, objective, singular.
23. Second person, solemn style, objective, singular.
24. First person, plural, objective.
25. Third person, feminine, singular, objective.
26. Third person, feminine, singular, nominative.
27. Third person, plural, neuter, objective.
28. Third person, singular, masculine, objective.
29. Third person, singular, neuter, nominative.

Lesson 94.

Compound Personal Pronouns.

The compound personal pronouns are as follows:

Singular.	*Plural.*
my+self	our+selves
thyself	yourselves
yourself	yourselves
himself	themselves
herself	themselves
itself	themselves

What suffix is added to form the singular? What suffix is added to form the plural? To what form of the personal pronoun is this suffix added in the first three singular compounds? To what in the first three plural compounds? In what persons are these compounds? In what persons are the remaining compounds? To what form is the suffix added in the last three, singular and plural?

Rule.—To form the compound personal pronouns add *self* for the singular and *selves* for the plural to the first form of the possessive in the first and second person, but to the objective in the third person.

Caution.—*Hisself* and *theirselves* are errors arising from not observing the last point of the above rule, *viz.:* The compound personal pronoun in the third person is formed by adding the suffix to the objective form.

Use of the Compound Personal Pronouns.

1. I will do that *myself.* (Emphasizes *I*)
2. She told Joseph *himself.* (Emphasizes *Joseph*)
3. You *yourself* made a mistake. (Emphasizes *you*)

In the foregoing cases the compounds are used simply for *emphasis.*

4. He hurt *himself.* 5. We injure *ourselves* when we neglect a duty. 6. He talks to *himself.* 7. You wronged *yourself* to write in such a case.

In these examples the verb is transitive, the *action* terminating on the *actor.* This is called a *reflexive* use, from *re*=again or back+*flectere*, to bend; the action being *bent back*, and received by the actor.

When used reflexively these pronouns serve the purpose of distinguishing the person or thing receiving the action.

These words may be used reflexively after prepositions also; as, I did it for *myself.* We can do it among *ourselves.*

In the above, notice:

1. The compound personal pronouns change their form for *number* only.

2. They may sustain either the nominative or the objective relation, but never the possessive.

REMARK.—*When we wish to emphasize the* **possessive,** *we use the adjective* **own**; *as, She likes* **her own** *home best.*

Lesson 95.

Exercises:

a. Give the plurals of

my, myself; thy, thyself; him, himself; her, herself; it, itself.

b. Use each singular compound in a sentence for *emphasis.* Same with each plural.

Use each singular *reflexively.* Same with each plural.

c. Fill the following blanks with words used for emphasis, or used reflexively, and distinguish the use of each:

1. It is cowardly for a man to kill ——. 2. A wise woman will attend to her —— affairs. 3. I saw Charles —— instead of his friend, and he gave me his —— opinion. 4. I know it is true, for General Grant —— told it. 5. Be careful, or you will betray ——. 6. We have many great men in America who have raised —— from poverty and obscurity by their —— industry.

Lesson 96.

AGREEMENT.

Rule.—A personal pronoun should agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.

Form for parsing a personal pronoun. . . . . { Classify. / Decline. / Antecedent, if present. { Person. / Number. / Gender, if any. / Rule for agreement. } / Form. / Rule. }

REMARK.—*When the antecedent is not expressed, no rule for agreement is given, and the Person, Number, and Gender can be determined only by the form of the pronoun.*

Exercise:

Parse the personal pronouns, both simple and compound, in the following:

1. As soon as the little silkworms are hatched, they begin to devour the leaves of the mulberry trees on which they find themselves. 2. "I know why George will not go," said Rob; "he is afraid he will fall down and hurt himself." 3. The raging storm grew faint and breathed its last. The restless clouds fretted themselves to atoms. 4. The tree stood again in loveliness; she was dressed in more than her former beauty. 5. A wounded serpent will sometimes bite itself.

6. Good friends, sweet friends, let me not stir you up
To such a sudden flood of mutiny.
They that have done this deed are honorable.

7. If you 'll step in one moment, dear, you shall behold yourself. 8. I seated myself in a recess of a large bow-window. 9. Our arrival being announced, the Squire came out to meet us. 10. For ourselves, therefore, it is comparatively of but little importance whether England does us justice or not; it is, perhaps, of far more importance to herself.

Lesson 97.

CONNECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Exercise:

Point out the adjective clauses in each of the following

complex sentences, analyze the adjective clause, point out the connective, and notice what other office each connective performs in the subordinate clause:

1. People that do not like grammar think it a useless study.
2. The boats that they had seen were not large.
3. General Grant, who had been an inveterate smoker, died in the prime of life from the effects of the poisonous nicotine.
4. Virtue, which is always its own reward, sometimes receives the condemnation of the world.

A pronoun that connects to the antecedent the adjective clause in which the pronoun performs a substantive office, is called a **Connective Pronoun.**

REMARK.—*Connective pronouns have usually been called Relative pronouns, but as personal pronouns also* **relate,** *the name seems inappropriate.*

Exercise:

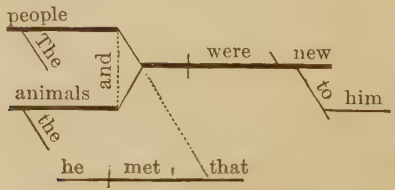
Point out the connective pronouns in the following, after this model:

MODEL:

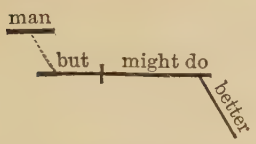
The berries that she gathered were ripe.

That connects the adjective clause *that she gathered* to the antecedent *berries* and is the object of *gathered;* therefore a connective pronoun.

1. Humboldt, whom you have heard so often mentioned here, was a great traveler.
2. The people and the animals that he met were new to him.



3. Wheat, which is the most important cereal, grows abundantly in India. 4. Livingstone, who explored vast regions in Africa, tried also to convert the savages. 5. Such savages as became Christians were baptized. 6. As many people as could be seated heard the lecture. 7. I have more land than I want. 8. There is no sane man but might do better if he would try.



REMARK.—*In this sentence the meaning is: There is no sane man* **who** *might* **not** *do better if he would try. The word* **but** *fills the office of both* **who** *and* **not.**

Lesson 98.

The simple connective pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, *as*, and rarely *but* and *than*.

REMARK.—*The connective pronouns agree in sense with their antecedents in person and number, but do not change in form to show this agreement.*

Exercise:

Parse the connective pronouns in the following sentences according to this formula:

Form for parsing simple connective pronouns.
- Classify.
- Decline, if declinable.
- Show what it connects.
- Agrees with antecedent: Person. Number.
- Syntax and form.
- Rule.

1. They also serve who only stand and wait. 2. He is a man in whom we can confide. 3. He who would thrive must rise at five. 4. Mr. Thorne is the farmer whose barn was burned last week. 5. He whom thou lovest is sick.

REMARK.—**Who** *and* **which** *may also be used in asking questions; as, Who brought it? Which did he find? Whom did you send?* **Which** *may also limit a noun and become an adjective: as, Which horse is it? Answer. The brown one. In such cases,* **who** *and* **which** *are not connective pronouns but* **interrogatives.**

Lesson 99.

CONNECTIVE PRONOUNS.

What.

She bought **what** *she needed.*

This sentence equals,

She bought **that which** *she needed;*

or,

She bought **the thing which** *she needed;*

or,

She bought **those things which** *she needed.*

Hence *what* is a connective pronoun, having a double relation, and equals the antecedent *that* or *those* and the connective pronoun *which*.

Exercise:

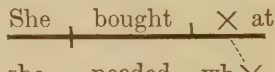
Expand these sentences and give the construction of *what*, tell what it equals, naming the office (subjective or objective) of each part.

MODEL:

She bought what she needed.

What equals *that which*. The antecedent *that* is the object of the verb *bought*. The connective pronoun *which* is the object of the verb *needed*.

Diagram:



Note.—*The first* (×) *to indicate the first part*, **that**, *understood, and the second* (×) *the second part*, **which**. *Put together*=what.

1. He did what was required. 2. She likes to see what is passing. 3. He was not thinking of what he said. 4. What is mine is also yours.

Composition Exercise:

a. Use the connective pronoun *what* in as many other constructions as you can, in every case giving the office of each part.

In sentences like the following, the word *what* has its antecedent after it, and equals an adjective and connective pronoun:

He carries in his snuff-box **what money** he needs = He carries in

	Adj.	*Antecedent.*	*Pro.*	
his snuff-box	**all**	the **money**	**that**	he needs.

b. Make six sentences illustrating this use of *what*. Try to get a variety.

c. Analyze, showing the different uses of the connective:

1. That tall lady whom you saw is the very one that did it. 2. The horses that ran away were frightened by the windmill. 3. All that came were pleased. 4. As many as can be seated will be welcome. 5. These ducks, which I shot, are large ones.

That, *as*, *but*, and *what* may have other uses than as connective pronouns, and thus become other parts of speech, as seen in the following table:

That.

1. I gave all *that* I had. (Connective pronoun)
2. Parse the word *that*. (Noun)
3. *That* leaf is torn. (Adjective)
4. *That* is a sad story. (Pronominal adjective)
5. I am very sorry *that* you went. (Conjunction)

As.

1. *As* is a very small word. (Noun)
2. I bought *as*[1] much *as*[2] I could find. (1. Adverb; 2. Connective pronoun)
3. He was sent *as* surgeon. (Conjunction)
4. And the river became *as* blood (=like). (Preposition)

Note.—*As a preposition* **as** *is very uncommon.*

But.

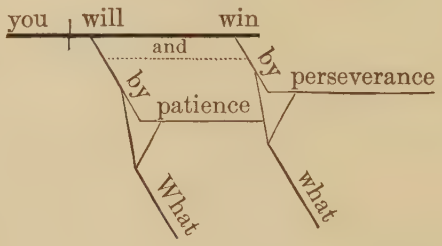
1. *But* has only three letters. (Noun)
2. There is no fireside, howsoe'er defended,
   But has one vacant chair. (Connective pronoun)
3. He went, *but* he could not stay. (Conjunction)
4. They are all gone *but* me (=except). (Preposition)
5. It is *but* right to pay your debts. (Adverb)
6. He is *but* a man. (Adjective)

What.

1. Parse *what*. (Noun)
2. She got *what* she deserved. (Connective pronoun)
3. *What* is it? (Interrogative pronoun)
4. *What* tree is it? (Interrogative adjective)
5. *What!* is that all? (Interjection)
6. *What* fun this is! (Emphatic adjective)
7. *What* miserable work! (Emphatic adverb)

8. *What* by patience and *what* by perseverance you will win (=partly). (Adverb) This use is very rare.

Diagram:



Lesson 100.

Connective Pronouns.

Exercise:

Determine what part of speech each italicized word is, by its use, or office in the sentence, in all cases giving the office first:

1. *What* have you in *that* hand? 2. *What* is *what* in that sentence? 3. There is nobody here *but* me; *but* we are safe. 4. Butter brings *but* twenty cents a pound now. 5. The antecedent of *what* is not usually expressed. 6. The committee said *that* *that* *that* *that* *that* boy wrote was not so good as *that*. 7. *But*, *as*, *that*, and *what* may each be used as several different parts of speech. 8. I think it is *but* just that you should make the confession. 9. I think it *but* justice that you should be required to pay for the damage. 10. *What!* do you think it is *so* late *as* four o'clock? 11. There is no boy *but* can do this if he tries. 12. I am *as* brave *as* you, but I do not want to go *as* a soldier. 13. *What* a handsome man he is! but *what* a voice he has!

Lesson 101.

Compound Connective Pronouns.

Examine *whoever*, *whichever*, and *whatever*.

The suffix *ever* is derived from the adverb *ever*, or the adjective *every*, coming from the same Anglo-Saxon root *æfre*, meaning *all;* hence its effect is to give the pronoun a broad meaning.

Thus: *Whoever* means *all who,* or *every person who,* or *he who. Whatever* means *all things which,* or *everything which.*

The compound connectives, then, expand like *what*, into antecedent and connective pronoun.

Whoever is the only one declinable, and it changes the first part like the simple connective pronouns. The plural is like the singular.

	Singular and Plural.
Nominative,	whoever or whosoever
Possessive,	whosesoever or whosever
Objective,	whomsoever or whomever

REMARK.—*Sometimes the compound is used for emphasis; as,*
Take it, **whosesover** it may be. (Partly independent)

Tell whomsoever you meet = Tell [every one | whom] you meet.

The antecedent *every one* is the object of *tell;* the connective pronoun *whom* is the object of *meet.*

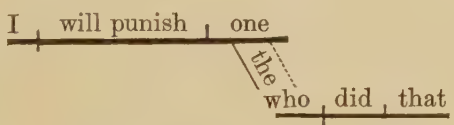
Whomsoever has the objective form.

I will punish whoever did that = I will punish [the one | who] did that.

The antecedent *the one* is the object of *will punish.* The connective pronoun *who* is the subject of *did.*

The compound has the nominative form. Hence the

Rule.—The form of the compound *whoever* depends upon the office of the connective part.



Composition Exercise:

Write six sentences containing compound connective pronouns; let two have *whoever* in the nominative form and two in the objective form. Aim at variety. Analyze each.

Lesson 102.

Exercise:

a. Analyze the following and parse the italicized words according to this form:

Form for parsing **what** and the compound connective pronouns.

- Classify.
- Decline, if declinable.
- Expand into: (Antecedent part. / Connective part.)
- The connective agrees with the antecedent in: (Person. / Number.)
- Syntax of antecedent part, Rule.
- Syntax of connective part, Rule.

1. The court favors *whomsoever* it chooses (to favor). 2. He sold *what* he could spare. 3. *What* she did was good. 4. *Whichever* you bring will please me. 5. The Emperor commanded *whomsoever* he pleased (to command) to enter the army. 6. People talk of *what* interests them most. 7. *Whatever* our visitors wish is at their disposal. 8. *Whoever* finds the horse may have my watch.

b. Fill the blanks with the proper compounds:

1. ——— desires may join the excursion. 2. The chairman will appoint ——— the committee recommends. 3. ——— he appoints will serve for one year.

c. Correct the following sentences:

1. Whoever the children choose shall be queen. 2. We shall give the medal to whomever deserves it most. 3. Whoever we wait for must pay a fine. 4. Whomever rides in a carriage must pay for it.

After correcting the above, diagram each.

Lesson 103.

Rules and Cautions for the use of Pronouns.

Examine the pronouns in the following sentences, tell their person, number, and gender, and notice their antecedents:

Every man *who* thinks *himself* perfect is greatly mistaken.

Queen Bess resembles *her* father more than *he* did *his; her* temper was so violent that *it* often alarmed even *her* favorites.

I. Personal pronouns must agree with their antecedents in person, number, and gender. Connectives, only in person and number.

Exercise:

Correct the following:

1. If there be any one to help, let them come now. 2. Each woman brought their work with them. 3. The sun is a father to us, and we should love it. 4. We gave the horse oats, but it would not eat it. 5. Have you ever seen a lioness rave when its young were taken from it? 6. Every boy should study for themselves. 7. Each moment is a treasure, and we should guard them well. 8. My teacher and friend gave me their advice. (One person)

II. Two or more antecedents meaning different things and connected by *and*, require a plural pronoun; as,

Mr. and Mrs. Curtis have returned from *their* wedding journey.

III. Two or more antecedents connected by *and*, but describing the same person or thing, require a singular pronoun; as,

This great lawyer and statesman has gone to *his* rest.

IV. Two singular antecedents connected by *and*, but emphatically distinguished from each other, require a singular pronoun; as,

The good man, and the sinner too, shall have *his* reward.

REMARK.—*In this construction the words* **and** *and* **too** *have the same force that* **as well as** *would have.*

V. Antecedents connected by *and*, but limited by *each*, *every*, or *no*, require a singular pronoun; as,

Every book, every ruler, and every pencil should have *its* place.

Lesson 104.

RULES FOR THE USE OF PRONOUNS.

VI. Singular antecedents connected by *or* or *nor* require a singular pronoun; as,

One or the other must take back *his* (not *their*) word.

REMARK.—*This rule applies to antecedents connected by* **as well as**, *and to antecedents one affirmative and the other negative. In the latter case, the pronoun agrees with the affirmative and not with the negative; as,*

The baker, **as well as** the grocer, has lowered *his* prices. Lucius,

and **not** Claude, is expected to bring *his* horse. The boys, and **not** the father, should give up *their* seats.

VII. When the antecedent is a collective noun taken distributively, the pronoun should be plural; as,

The jury could not agree, and so *they* were discharged.

VIII. A collective antecedent conveying the idea of unity requires a singular pronoun; as,

The Board of Education has *its* trials also.

IX. Do not use pronouns needlessly; avoid repetition except for great emphasis.

Henry *he* left her book here. Incorrect. Omit *he*.

X. Do not use both the solemn and the common style of the pronoun *you* in the same sentence.

Thou art my father's brother, else would I reprove *you*. Incorrect. Change *thou* to *you*, or *you* to *thee*.

XI. For politeness, the speaker should mention himself last, except when confessing a fault; as,

You and *I*.

XII. A pronoun should not be used to represent an adjective, or in any place where reference to its antecedent would not be clear. Substitute a noun, use a direct quotation, or reconstruct the sentence.

Incorrect: Be virtuous, *which* is more valuable than diamonds.

Corrected: Be virtuous, for virtue is more valuable than diamonds.

Incorrect because not clear: Johnson told Williams that he would not be noticed, because he was so commonplace.

Corrected: Johnson told Williams that he, Williams, would not be noticed, etc.;

or,

Johnson said to Williams, "You will not be noticed, because you are so commonplace."

Lesson 105.

WORK, UNDER RULES FOR USE OF PRONOUNS.

Exercise:

Correct the following:

1. The committee were divided in opinion, so it referred the business to the society. 2. The crowd was so great that we could scarcely make our way through them. 3. Suffer not jealousy and distrust to enter; it will destroy, like a canker, every germ of friendship. 4. My mother she thinks I am too young. 5. Either James or Milton has lost their cap. 6. This poet and philosopher had their little weaknesses. (One person) 7. Now, my friend, I am going to help thee and lend you some money. 8. I and James and you will succeed, never fear. 9. Every soldier and every citizen should be ready to do their duty. 10. The rich man, and the poor man, too, is accountable for the use of their means.

Composition Exercise:

Write one original sentence under each of the rules for the agreement of pronouns in Lessons 103 and 104, and underline the word illustrating the rule. Be ready to assign the reason for the form of each pronoun used.

Lesson 106.

RULES FOR CONNECTIVE PRONOUNS.

From an examination of all the sentences previously given upon the subject of connective pronouns, we deduce the following:

Rules for Connective Pronouns.

I. *Who* is used to represent persons and also animals and things personified; *which* to represent animals and things; *that* to represent persons, animals, and things, together or separately.

II. *That* is preferred to *who* or *which* in the following places, except when euphony forbids:

(a) When having joint reference to persons and things; as,

The men and the horses that were in the lot were blown across the valley.

(b) In a restrictive clause after an adjective expressing the highest degree of quality or quantity; as,

He is the wisest man that I know.

REMARK.—*A* **restrictive clause** *is one that limits to a specific person, object, or class the application of what is said.*

(c) In a restrictive clause after an antecedent otherwise unlimited; as,

People that have honor will not trifle with it.

(d) After the antecedent *who;* as,

Who that saw her could believe her guilty?

(e) After *all*, *very*, or *same;* as,

He is the very one that I met.

(f) After the indefinite pronoun *it;* as,

It is you that did it.

(g) To avoid ambiguity; as,

He sent his boy to a school *that* did him good.

REMARK.—*To say "* **which** *did him good" might seem to mean the* **sending** *did him good, instead of the* **school.**

(h) Whenever the propriety of using *who* or *which* is doubtful; as,

The little babe that lies in its cradle.

REMARK.—*A babe can scarcely be called a person, and be represented by* **who,** *or an animal or an inanimate thing, and be represented by* **which.**

III. Use *who* or *which*, not *that*, when a clause is not restrictive, but can be introduced by *and he*, *and it;* as,

Garfield, *who* was [*and he was*] a self-made man, rose to the highest position in our country.

REMARK.—*The non-restrictive clause should be set off by the comma.*

Lesson 107.

RULES FOR CONNECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Examine the following sentences, and notice the difference in meaning:

1. All the man's friends, *who* are very anxious, think he must be dead. 2. All the man's friends *that* are very anxious, think he must be dead. 3. All our sheep, *which* were on the mountain, did well. 4. All our sheep *that* were on the mountain, did well. 5. The parlor stove, *which* we never liked, was sold to-day. 6. The parlor stove *that* we never liked, was sold to-day.

Exercise:

Construct six sentences similar to these, and explain the difference in meaning caused by using *that*, instead of *who* or *which*.

REMARK.—*The connective pronoun* **that** *should not follow a preposition. When* **that** *is the object of a preposition, the preposition must end the clause; as,*

This is a duty **that** all will attend to = This is a duty **to which** all will attend.

As is sometimes used as a connective pronoun, instead of *that*.

He cut down such trees *as* were not needed. He cut down the trees *that* were not needed. I will give you such *as* I have. I will give you those *that* I have.

Whose is the only possessive form of the connective pronouns, and it is used to represent persons, animals, or things.

This is the man *whose* horse was stolen. This is the horse *whose* mane was trimmed. This is the mane *whose* shape is neatest. Here is a watch *whose* works need cleaning.

REMARK.—*The use of* **whose** *to represent a* **thing,** *can be and in many cases should be avoided by the use of a prepositional phrase; as, Here is a watch, the works* **of which** *need cleaning.*

Lesson 108.

RULES FOR CONNECTIVE PRONOUNS.

IV. To prevent ambiguity, place the connective pronoun as near its antecedent as possible:

Incorrect: He is like a straw in the current of the Amazon that has no will.

Corrected: He that has no will is like, etc.

V. When several connective pronouns relate jointly to the same antecedent, the same pronoun should be used in each clause; as,

The things *that* Madam de Forest brought from Paris and *that* were burned in the fire yesterday, were very costly.

VI. A proper name taken merely as a name or in a sense not strictly personal, should be represented by *which*, not by *who;* as,

Arnold, *which* is only another name for traitor, died a miserable death.

VII. *What* should not be used instead of the conjunction *that* nor after an expressed antecedent; thus,

You do not know but **what** you can do it, *should be* You do not know **that** you can not do it, *or, possibly,* You do not know **but that** you can do it.

Lesson 109.

Errors in the Use of Connective Pronouns.

Exercise:

Correct the following:

1. The lady which she mentioned is an heiress. 2. This is the warmest weather which we have had yet. 3. The boys and the dogs which are romping on the common make great merriment. 4. General George Washington, that was our first president, was also an excellent farmer. 5. People who knew him intimately say he was very systematic. 6. Who who is not systematic could be a successful farmer? 7. She saw in a window a bunch of beautiful flowers that she wanted greatly. 8. Do not call a child Nero, who is simply a name for cruelty. 9. This is the very plant which is described there. 10. It is strange what she did. 11. People who believe in ghosts and that are always believing wonderful stories, must be very credulous. 12. How do we know but what they are insane? 13. The two men what were seen were Germans. 14. Who is he who dare insult a king? 15. Mr. Fox, which was very hungry,

thought he would hold an interview with Mistress Hen. 16. The sequoia is the tallest tree which grows. 17. Sun-bonnets, that are very useful articles, are not so fashionable as they used to be. (Observe the comma.) 18. Sun-bonnets that are generally made of light, cool material are the most useful articles of ladies' attire. 19. John Muir, that has written so many interesting descriptions of California glaciers, discovered the Little Yosemite. 20. The people and the animals which he saw on the journey were wild and savage. 21. Mrs. A. gave Mrs. B. for her son the dozen new handkerchiefs which she said she had hemmed for him. 22. That is the same bear which I tracked yesterday. 23. Men that work over hot quicksilver and who do not muffle their mouths, will not live long. 24. He is very avaricious, which makes any one become a miser.

Lesson 110.

The connective pronoun used as the *object* of a verb may be understood, but as the *subject* must always be expressed; as,

1. The picture you gave is a fine one. (**That** you gave)
2. The friends *that* help us are those *that* tell us our failings.

Exercise:

Some of the sentences in Lesson 109 do not need the connective expressed. Rewrite them, omitting the connective, and state why it may be omitted.

Composition Exercise:

Construct a sentence under each of the seven rules in Lessons 106 and 108.

Examine the following sentences, and notice that the third explains the first and second:

1. All there escaped.
2. All the people there escaped.
3. All the people that were there escaped.

1. Many in town did not know it.
2. Many children in town did not know it.
3. Many children that were in town did not know it.

In the first, *there* is part of a clause modifying *all*, as seen by the third.

In the first one of the second set, *in town* is part of a clause limiting *many*.

Adverbial expressions are frequently parts, or fragments, of clauses that belong to some noun as adjective adjuncts.

Lesson 111.

Interrogatives.

Notice the kind of sentences:

Who found it? *Where?* *When?* *How?*
Which house is it? *Whose?* *How* do you know?
What man did you mean?
What did you say? *Why?*

Each italicized word asks a question, and is, therefore, an interrogative word. Some are pronouns; as, *who:* some, adjectives; as, *which:* some, adverbs; as, *why.*

(a) He said, "*Who* are you?"
(b) He said, "*Where* are you?"
(c) He said, "*Which* one are you?"

These three sentences are declarative, but each contains a direct quotation that is interrogative; *who* (a) being an interrogative pronoun, *where* (b) an interrogative adverb, and *which* (c) an interrogative adjective.

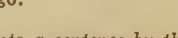
Remark.—*A direct quotation is the repetition of the exact words used by another person. An indirect quotation is a repetition of the thought with a change in one or more words.*

Direct quotation: He said, **"I will go."**
Indirect quotation: He said **that he would go.**

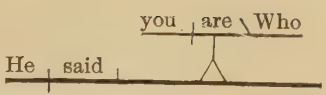
Remark.—*A direct quotation introduced into a sentence by the words* **said, replied, answered,** *etc., should be (1) set off by the comma, (2) be begun with a capital, and (3) be inclosed in quotation marks.*

Diagrams.

(Interrogative pronoun asking:)

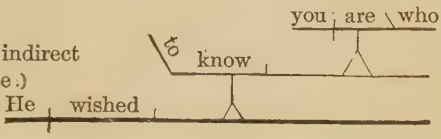


(Interrogative pronoun in a direct quotation; object clause:)

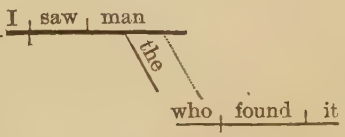


REMARK.—*No connective is needed for a quotation, or for a question used as a noun clause.*

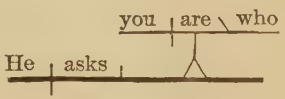
(Interrogative in an indirect quotation; object clause.)



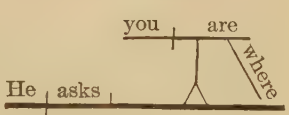
(A connective pronoun belonging to an adjective clause:)



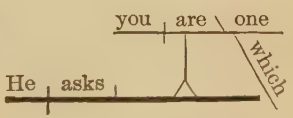
(d) He asks *who* you are.



(e) He asks *where* you are.



(f) He asks *which* one you are.

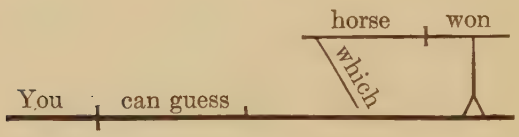


These last three sentences express the same thoughts as (a), (b), and (c). The direct quotations have been changed to indirect, but they still imply the same question, and the italicized words are still interrogatives.

Notice that a question is implied in each of the following, also:

(g) He said, "Tell me *who* you are."
(h) I do not know *who* she is.
(i) I have found out *where* you got it.
(j) You can guess *which* horse won.

Diagram.



Lesson 112.

INTERROGATIVES.

Definition.

An interrogative, then, is a word that asks or implies a question, and may be a pronoun, an adjective, or an adverb.

Exercises:

a. Fill the blanks, and tell whether you have inserted an interrogative pronoun, an interrogative adjective, or an interrogative adverb:

1. ——— found Moses in the river?
2. ——— did it happen?
3. ——— woman did the princess appoint as his nurse?
4. ——— had his mother hidden him?
5. ——— was his sister's name?

Do these five sentences *ask* questions, or *imply* them?

b. Fill the following blanks and notice whether the words ask or imply:

1. Guess ——— Moses was put into the ark of bulrushes.
2. Tell in ——— country it happened.
3. Do you know ——— his father was?
4. I have heard ——— you like best.

Lesson 113.

INTERROGATIVES.

c. Point out the interrogative pronouns:

Who are they? Of which did you speak? To what do you allude now? Give me a hint as to who they are. Who am I? Who are you? Who is he? Who are we? What am I? What are you? What is he? What is she?

Notice that the interrogative pronoun does not change, whether the question is about one or more, or about male or female.

As the question is always *about* some person or thing, the interrogative pronouns are always of the *third person.*

When asking about a person, however, we use who; as, *Who* is it? If the question is about a thing, *What* is it?

There being no true antecedent, the gender and number can not be determined, as they are not shown in the form.

Exercise:

Analyze and diagram, noticing the office and form of each interrogative:

1. Who comes yonder? (Nominative—subject)
2. Who are they? (Nominative—attribute)
3. Whose hat is this? (Possessive—limiting)
4. Whom did Peter strike? (Object)
5. Of whom were they speaking? (Object)

Lesson 114.

INTERROGATIVES.

Composition Exercise:

a. The declinable interrogative pronoun *who* has a nominative, an objective, and a possessive form. Construct two original sentences illustrating each form.

b. Construct two sentences illustrating implied interrogatives. Change each to a direct quotation and punctuate properly.

c. Parse the interrogatives in the five sentences of Lesson 113, using the formula for nouns, Lesson 79.

[**To the Teacher.**—There is no particular gain to be derived from drilling on the interrogatives *which* and *what*, except to cultivate the power of discrimination; but drill on these can be added here if thought desirable.]

Lesson 115.

Errors in the Use of Pronouns.

Exercise:

Correct the following according to the formula already given:

1. Who did you buy that for? 2. Who did you see in town? 3. Whom is expected to-morrow? 4. Susie is the friend who I expected. 5. No one can tell what trials may await them to-morrow. 6. Sam and Fred, get yourself ready for school. 7. Who should I find there but he? 8. You have mine, and I have thine. 9. I have a new book, which, when I have read, you may have it. 10. My father, and not a stranger, shall give me their advice. 11. The scissors have been taken from its place. 12. You have written this three times, which was not necessary. 13. The rotation of the earth on its axis, it causes day and night. 14. The committee has reported favorably on the matter that they considered yesterday. 15. Rye or barley, when they are scorched, may supply the place of coffee. 16. I and father and mother went to see the panorama. 17. How do you know but what Mars is inhabited? 18. When a dish is set on this table, it should be wiped first. 19. Whom do you think has arrived? 20. Who, I ask, who sees me now, can doubt my story? 21. Mother and father, they do not want me to go to sea.

Lesson 116.

Errors in the Use of Pronouns.

Exercise:

Correct as in Lesson 115.

22. The grocer told the baker that his horse had run away. 23. My brother is not so slow as me. 24. It is you who need to be temperate. 25. Let falsehood be a stranger to your lips, a stranger to thy heart. 26. Dudley, that was here to-day, is president of our society. 27. This is the best which can be had. 28. The merchant bought a suit of clothes

and gave them to the poor boy. 29. He is not the same man which he once was. 30. The boiler can not be tested to-day that has just been finished. 31. In every movement self-possession and grace showed itself. 32. The moon shed his silvery beams over the landscape. 33. Dr. Blake sent his patient to a climate which helped him. 34. You may invite whomever will be the best company. 35. He was the wisest man whom I ever knew. 36. He is as foolish as a little child who reaches out to grasp the moon. 37. The passengers and baggage which had arrived were taken to the hotel. 38. The father and guide of your childhood will prove themselves the friend of your riper years. 39. Let him be who he may, I will not obey such an unjust command.

Lesson 117.

Errors in the Use of Pronouns.

Exercise:

Correct as in Lessons 115 and 116.

40. The friends whom I hoped to meet, and that had promised to wait for me, were not at the station. 41. We were surprised to see Lucius talking with Andrew, because we knew that he was his enemy. 42. The committee separated to go to its dinner. 43. These apples, if they had been sorted sooner, they would not have spoiled so rapidly. 44. That bright star set at six o'clock this morning which we saw rise last night. 45. The soldiers dispersed the crowd who had gathered. 46. Get me the red and black ink; they will both be useful. 47. Parliament overtaxed the American colonies, which caused the Revolution. 48. Animals which live upon plants are called herbivorous. 49. Every team and every steamer is loaded to their utmost capacity. 50. The same person is both policeman and sheriff and they are kept very busy. 51. It was Fred, and not Henry, that hurt themselves with a knife. 52. The company have disbanded because it could not agree. 53. He did not say but what we were welcome. 54. The man should first count the cost who attempts to oppose nature. 55. It is in poor taste for any one to praise themselves. 56. If my aunt or my sister comes, tell them I will be back soon. 57. He needs no book that can not see. 58. You are as tall as her.

CHAPTER IV.

ADJECTIVES.

Lesson 118.

Classes of Adjectives.

Limiting—Descriptive.

Review the definition of an adjective in Lesson 50.

1. **Boys** *are playing.* Here the noun *boys* can mean any boys and any number of boys.

2. **The** *boys are playing.* Some particular boys, therefore *the* limits or narrows the meaning.

3. **Five** *boys are playing.* *Five* limits by telling number.

4. **Each** *boy plays.* *Each* limits by applying the noun to the individuals separately.

5. **My** *eyes are* **blue.** The possessive pronoun *my* limits to particular eyes; *blue* describes them.

6. *Platinum is* **hard.** The adjective *hard* describes the platinum by telling quality.

7. **That sick** *child will die.* *That* limits by pointing out, and *sick* describes by showing condition.

8. *He is in an* **upper** *room.* *Upper* describes room by showing its position.

Thus you see that there are two classes of adjectives—**limiting** and **descriptive.**

Limiting adjectives do not describe, but descriptive adjectives often limit as well as describe.

By examining the sentences above, you will see that *limiting* adjectives show how far the meaning of the noun extends, by pointing out, numbering, separating, etc., and that *descriptive* adjectives describe the real person or thing by showing quality, position, condition, etc.

1. *The* horse is a noble animal. 2. Hand me *an* orange. 3. Every star is *a* sun.

These limiting adjectives—*a* or *an* and *the*—are often called articles. *The* points out some particular thing or

set of things, and *a* or *an* limits to one, but not any particular one.

REMARK.—**A** *and* **an** *are different forms of the same word, from the Anglo-Saxon root* **an** *meaning* **one**; *for euphony the* **n** *is dropped before sub-vocal ar aspirate sounds.*

The *is occasionally an adverb; as,* **The** more haste **the** less speed.

A *is sometimes, though rarely, used as a preposition; as,* He went **a** fishing (on fishing).

Lesson 119.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Pronominal.

Examine the italicized words below:

Some people are happy, *other* people are not.

Some and *other* are limiting adjectives.

By leaving out the noun *people* we can say,

Some are happy, *others* are not.
Few men are wholly bad. *Few* are wholly bad.
The first *five* (pupils) recited well.
This has a good flavor=This (peach or apple).
Each should do his duty=Each (person).

When limiting adjectives are used instead of the nouns that they limit, they are called **pronominal adjectives**, (something like pronouns). They are, however, not pronouns, because the nouns for which they stand, though not expressed, are *understood*, and if supplied, would follow these adjectives.

When the nouns are expressed with such adjectives, the latter are then simply *limiting* adjectives, no longer *pronominal.*

REMARK.—*Most limiting adjectives, except the articles, may become pronominal.*

Exercise:

Point out the pronominal adjectives, and tell what noun is understood:

1. This is a good apple; these are all ripe. 2. Don't take that on the upper shelf; those in the fruit basket are better. 3. This one of the two girls is a mute. 4. The other is blind. 5. The other's vision is defective. 6. He pointed to the others. 7. Some people have money, I have not much; perhaps you have more, but doubtless she has the most.

By examining the above you will see

In 1 and 2 that *this* and *that* have plurals;

In 4–5–6 that some other pronominals also have plurals and possessives, like nouns;

In 7 that some undergo another change of form, used to express degree, as, *much, more, most; few, fewer, fewest.*

REMARK.—*This last change of form is called comparison.*

This is applied to objects near by; its plural is *these.*

That is applied to objects at a distance; its plural is *those.*

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nominative form,	other,	others.
Possessive,	other's,	others'.
Nominative form,	one,	ones.
Possessive,	one's,	ones'.

The possessive of *another* is *another's*, and it has no plural, the prefix *an* meaning *one.*

Composition Exercise:

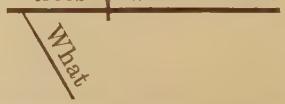
Write a sentence for each of the forms of *this*, *that one*, *other*, *another.*

Lesson 120.

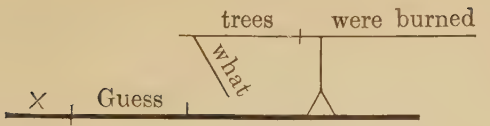
CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Interrogative Adjectives.

What *trees were burned?* (Asking a question)



2. *Guess* **what** *trees were burned?* (Implying a question)



Exercise:

Write two sentences using *which*, and two using *what* as interrogative adjectives.

Descriptive Adjectives.

Descriptive adjectives may be used:

1. To limit a noun; as,

A *warm* day will start the *young* grass.

2. As the attribute of subject or object; as,

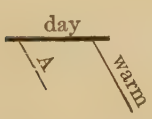
The sunshine is *warm*. The furnace made the room *warm*.

3. They may also be used substantively; as,

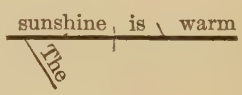
The *rich* do not always oppress the *poor*.

Diagrams.

1.



2.



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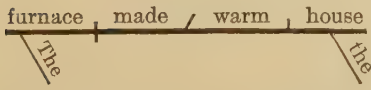
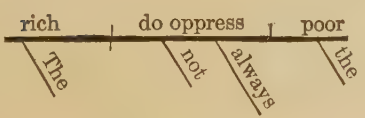
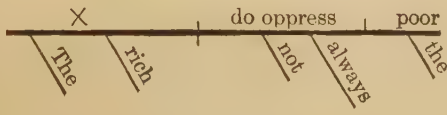


4.

a.



b.



N. B.—The noun may be supplied.

REMARK.—*Such descriptive adjectives as* **rich, poor, wise, good, beautiful,** *etc., when used substantively representing a whole class, have virtually become nouns, generally plural, and when plural, though singular in form, they require plural verbs and pronouns; as,*

The **good are** not always happy, though **they** deserve to be.

The purely descriptive Adjective expresses

1. Quality; as,

An *industrious* man.

2. Condition, or state; as,

A *sick* man.

3. Position; as,

An *upper* room.

There are others, like the following:

1. A *German* university, A *Shakespearian* sonnet, called **Proper Adjectives,** derived from proper names, and always capitalized.

2. An *unheard-of* event, A *two-foot* rule, called **compound** and written with the hyphen.

3. *Trying* weather, *Murmuring* sea, A *forgotten* face, A *forsaken* wife, derived from verbals, and called **Verbal Adjectives.**

Verbal adjectives differ from true verbals in having lost the idea of special time. They express a general characteristic of the person or thing to which they belong.

ILLUSTRATION.—*A bird singing beneath my window awoke me.* In this sentence, the verbal *singing* expresses an act as going on at that particular time—the time it awoke me.

The nightingale is a singing bird, but the blue jay is not.

Here *singing* expresses an act as a general characteristic belonging to the bird at one time as much as at another, and is, therefore, a purely descriptive adjective.

REMARK.—*Nouns may become adjectives; as, An* **iron** *spoon, The* **city** *police.*

Lesson 121.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Exercise:

Point out and classify the descriptive adjectives:

1. The fragrant breezes fanned his burning brow. 2. We met a blue-eyed maiden among the romantic ruins. 3. It was in an upper chamber, the inner walls of which were hung with rotting tapestry. 4. The Italian government has undergone many important changes. 5. The closing speech was made by the retiring president. 6. The child is well now, but he has been very ill.

Composition Exercises:

a. Write six sentences containing compound adjectives.
b. Write six sentences containing proper adjectives.
c. Write six sentences containing verbal adjectives.

Lesson 122.

Changes in Form.

As you have seen, descriptive adjectives may show *quality*, *condition*, or *position*, of the real things.

1. Walter is *large* for his age, but his brother Louis is *larger*.

Large and *larger* express the same quality, *size*, but *larger* shows that one of the boys possesses this quality in a greater degree than the other.

2. Alva is the *largest* one of the four brothers.

Largest shows that Alva has the greatest degree of size of all the persons compared.

Notice, then, that this adjective has three forms—*large*, *larger*, *largest*.

Name two other adjectives that can have this change in form.

This change in the form of the adjective to express different degrees of the same quality is called **comparison**.

It would be very burdensome to our language to have a different form of the adjective for each of these degrees. Usage has settled upon *three* forms, for many adjectives, called the *common*, or *positive*, form, the *comparative*, and the *superlative* form. With some there is a *diminutive* form, as yellow*ish*, salt*ish*. Many variations of degree are shown by joining an *adverb* to the adjectives; as, *more* healthful, *most* healthful, *less* healthful, *least* healthful.

Examine:

large, larger, largest.

strong,	stronger,	strongest.
amiable,	more amiable,	most amiable.
	less amiable,	least amiable.

Exercise:

Use the above adjectives in sentences.

Large, strong, amiable, yellow, are in the common, or simplest, form. (Usually called the positive)

Examine these sentences; notice, (1) what things are compared, and (2) how many at a time:

Ned is tall, but Will is *taller.*
The mother is *more amiable* than her daughter is [amiable].
Miss G's desks are *smaller* than Miss H's.
The second book is *less interesting* than the others.

The italicized adjectives used above are in the comparative form.

The comparative form shows that two things, or sets of things, have been compared with regard to a certain quality, and that the one described by the comparative has more or less of the quality than the other.

Examine these in the same way:

He is the *tallest* boy in school, and the *best* scholar in his class.
She is the *youngest* of four children.
The three sisters have each a pony, but Susie's is the *smallest.*
Of all the books I have read, this is the *least interesting.*

This form is called the superlative. It shows that more than two things, or sets of things, have been compared in regard to a certain quality, and that the one described has the most or the least of that quality.

Exercise:

Write out the comparison of the adjectives in the four sentences above, in this form:

Simplest Form.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
wide,	wider,	widest.
happy,	happier,	happiest.
merry,	merrier,	merriest.

Simplest Form.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
able,	abler,	ablest.
gentle,	gentler,	gentlest.
narrow,	narrower,	narrowest.
shallow,	shallower,	shallowest.
excitable,	more excitable, / less excitable,	most excitable. / least excitable.
healthful,	more (or less) healthful,	most (or least) healthful.

Lesson 123.

Changes in Form.

Directions for Comparison.

I. Most adjectives of one syllable, and those of two syllables accented on the last, or ending in *y*, *le*, *ow*, are compared by adding *er* to form the comparative, and *est* to form the superlative.

In forming these different degrees, observe the rules for spelling.

II. Other adjectives of two syllables, and those of more than two syllables, are usually compared by prefixing *more* and *most* for increase, and *less* and *least* for decrease.

Remark.—**More** *and* **most, less** *and* **least,** *may be construed either as* **adverbs** *or as a part of the adjective, expressing a degree of comparison.*

Note.—*The choice of modes of comparison is often a matter of sound. Choose that which is most agreeable to the ear, if in accordance with good usage.*

III. Some adjectives are compared by a radical change in the word:

Good, better, best.

Irregular Comparison.

Simple Form.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
aft,	after,	aftermost.
bad, / evil, / ill,	worse,	worst.
far,	farther,	farthest *or* farthermost.

Simplest Form.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
fore,	former,	foremost *or* first.
(Forth,)	further,	furthest *or* furthermost.
Good,	better,	best.
Hind,	hinder,	hindmost *or* hindermost.
(In),	inner,	inmost *or* innermost.
Late,	later,	latest.
Late,	latter,	last.
Little,	less,	least.
Many, Much,	more,	most.
Near,	nearer,	nearest. next.
Old,	older, elder,	oldest. eldest.
Out,	outer, utter,	outermost. utmost. uttermost.
Under,	———	undermost.
(Up),	upper,	upmost. uppermost.
Top,	———	topmost.

REMARK.—*The words inclosed in parentheses are adverbs. Most limiting adjectives are not compared, though some expressing number or quantity may admit of comparison. Descriptive adjectives expressing qualities that can exist in one degree only, or are already in the highest degree, are not compared; as,* **round, dead, level, perfect.** *We may say* **more nearly perfect,** *etc.; and the comparative and superlative forms are frequently used in that sense.*

Lesson 124.

CHANGES IN FORM.

Exercise:

a. Compare according to the above rules or exceptions:

Wise, lovely, intelligent, much, lazy, pretty, graceful, hot, cold, capable, well, good, honorable, peaceful, hard, horizontal, eloquent, ill, sallow, tender, handsome, idle.

Some of these may be compared by means of suffixes or of prefixes; look in the dictionary when in doubt.

b. Sum up your knowledge of the subject of adjectives by rapid parsing, after this form:

1. Classify.
2. Compare: { Simplest Form. / Comparative Form. / Superlative Form.
3. Give Form.
4. Give Use.
5. *Rule:* "Adjectives limit or describe nouns or pronouns."

MODEL:

That boy is tall.

Tall { Common descriptive adjective. / Compared: { Tall. / Taller. / Tallest. } / Simplest form. / Used as an attribute describing *boy*. / *Rule.*—Adjectives qualify nouns and pronouns. }

Lesson 125.

RULES AND CAUTIONS.

The Articles.

I. Use *a* or *an* to indicate *one*, but no particular one; *the* to point out a particular thing or class.

II. For euphony, use *a* before words beginning with a subvocal or an aspirate sound and *an* before a vocal sound; as *a* ball, *an* apricot, *a* task.

Exception.—*It is considered good usage to use* **an** *before the aspirate sound of* **h** *when the word is accented on the second syllable; as,*

An *historian;* **an** *hypothesis.*

REMARK.—*Subvocals, vocals, and aspirates, are sounds and not letters. We say* **an hour** *because* **h** *is silent and the word begins with the vocal sound of* **ou.**

III. When two or more connected adjectives describe different things, use the article before each adjective; as,

We found *a* hot and *a* cold spring. (One spring could not be both hot and cold.)

IV. When two or more connected adjectives describe one thing or set of things jointly, use the article before the first adjective only; as,

A black and white shawl. (One shawl, but two colors)

N. B.—A repetition of the article implies a repetition of the noun.

Lesson 126.

Rules and Cautions.

V. Connected nouns emphatically distinguished from each other have the article before each; as,

In choosing a friend, we should consider *the* character rather than *the* social standing.

VI. Do not use the article before the names of virtues, vices, passions, arts, or sciences, taken in a general sense; before titles or words mentioned merely as words; or before a proper name in the singular; as,

Milton thinks *love* is a virtue and *anger* a vice. They gave her the title of M.D. *Hill* comes from the same root as *column*—not *A* hill comes, etc.

Few expresses number, and *little*—quantity.

VII. Use *a few* and *a little* when meaning *some; few* when meaning *not many*, and *little, not much;* as,

I am content with *a few* friends and *a little* money. (Meaning *some* friends, and *some* money.)

Note.—A few *and* **a little** *mean more than* **few** *and* **little.**

VIII. In expressing a comparison with *than*, if both nouns refer to the same person or thing, use but one article; otherwise, repeat the article; as,

Mr. S. is a better carpenter than blacksmith. (He is a better carpenter than he is a blacksmith.) Mr. S. is a better carpenter than a blacksmith. (He is a better carpenter than a blacksmith would be.)

Lesson 127.

Composition Exercise:

Write a correct sentence illustrating each of the eight rules and cautions, Lessons 125 and 126.

Lesson 128.

ERRORS IN THE USE OF ARTICLES.

Exercise:

Correct the sentences below by the following

MODEL:

He was an wise man.

Incorrect: Because *an* is here used before the word *wise*, beginning with a subvocal sound, thus violating the rule:

"*A* should be used before words beginning with a subvocal or an aspirate sound."

Corrected: He was a wise man.

1. They found an hornet's nest, but were rescued by an young man in an uniform like that of a soldier. 2. Hattie has a elegant new dress. 3. Is she a honest girl? 4. We staid a hour, an whole hour. 5. A fraction is one of the equal parts of an unit. 6. Now we are studying not the noun but adjective. 7. Imitate the virtues, as well as manners, of your neighbors. 8. The hard and soft maple require very different soil. 9. The east and west boundary are a mile apart. 10. Ellen's aunt gave her two new handkerchiefs, a linen and silk. 11. The honesty is always the best policy. 12. She wrote another and a colder letter. 13. What is the original meaning of a *memorandum?* 14. Howard was always partial to the mathematics. 15. Wilson had a few friends because he was so surly 16. As the waves were rolling high, but a little of the cargo and a few passengers were rescued. 17. You sent me less books than ordered. 18. Little (something) can be accomplished in so short a time, but not enough. 19. Few Japanese come to this country to study, because they wish to learn our manners and customs.

Lesson 129.

RULES AND CAUTIONS.

IX. Whenever the adjective has a form to denote one or more than one, the adjective and noun should agree in number; as,

This kind, *these* kinds, *twenty* pounds.

But we may say a *five-dollar* piece, or a *ten-foot* pole, when the singular noun helps to form the compound adjective.

The following nouns are singular in form when used with numerals, but add *s* in other cases:

Brace, couple, pair, yoke, score, hundred, thousand, etc. *Two pair* of shoes. They marched in *pairs*.

X. Do not use adjectives for adverbs, nor adverbs for adjectives; as,

His face looks *cross*. (Not crossly) Diagram.
I scolded him *well*. (Not good)

XI. Do not use the pronoun *them* as an adjective; say,

Those scissors, not *them* scissors.

XII. Use *either* and *neither* with reference to two things only; *any* and *none* with reference to more than two; as,

Any of the six. *Neither* of these two.

Lesson 130.

RULES AND CAUTIONS.

XIII. Use the reciprocal expression *each other* with reference to two; and *one another* with reference to more than two; as,

That couple are very devoted to *each other*. Neighbors should be kind to *one another*.

XIV. When adjectives are of the same rank, and joined to one noun, they should generally be arranged in order of length, the shortest first; as,

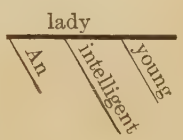
George is both honest and industrious.

REMARK.—*Terms are of the same rank when connected by* **and, or,** *or* **nor,** *expressed or understood. When in a series of adjectives of the same rank, one or more of the conjunctions is omitted, the adjectives must be separated from one another by the comma.*

XV. In a series of adjectives of different rank, place nearest the noun the one expressing the most distinguishing quality of it, or most closely limiting it; as,

An intelligent young lady.

It would not sound correct to say, "An intelligent and young lady;" therefore no comma, and the adjectives need not be in order of length.



XVI. Be careful in the choice of adjectives; do not exaggerate the idea, or repeat it; thus,

Do not say, "I have a horrible cold." (Look up the meaning of the word *horrible.*) *Severe* would be better.

"He is *wise* and *intelligent,*" repeats the idea.

Lesson 131.

ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES.

Exercises:

a. Correct the following by model under Lesson 128:

1. It is impossible for me to like those kind of peaches. 2. That tree is sixty foot high. 3. He walked very gentle. 4. She appeared beautifully that evening. 5. I have not seen Jane this five days. 6. It is uncommon foggy this morning. 7. What do you think of them sugar tongs? 8. Pass me those molasses. 9. None of you two can do this. 10. Here are four horses, but neither will do. 11. Twins are generally very much like one another. 12. Richard is an intelligent and full-grown young man. 13. Members of the same school should recognize each other on the street. 14. The three last verses are the best. 15. I have taken an awful cold. 16. The house is large and roomy. 17. It is beastly weather. 18. These sort of people are always quarrelsome.

b. After correction, parse the adjectives in the above.

Lesson 132.

Composition Exercise:

Make a correct sentence under each of the rules and cautions in Lessons 129 and 130. Give a good reason for each adjective that you use.

Lesson 133.

RULES AND CAUTIONS.

XVII. When *this* and *that*, *these* and *those* are contrasted, *this* and *these* should refer to the latter of the two things mentioned, and *that* and *those* to the former; as,

There was once a marked difference between the Spartans and the Athenians, *these* being noted for their hardihood, *those* for their culture. (For the true meaning, change the position of the terms, *Athenians* and *Spartans*.)

XVIII. When *the one* and *the other* are contrasted, *the one* should refer to the former term mentioned and *the other* to the latter; as,

The two brothers, George and Milton, were a striking contrast; the one was fair and amiable; the other dark and fiery.

XIX. Place adjectives so that they will clearly limit or describe the word intended; as,

A box of fresh grapes, not A fresh box of grapes, unless a different thought is intended.

XX. The comparative degree is generally used with reference to two objects, or sets of objects, and the superlative, to more than two; as,

The Mississippi is longer than the Ohio. It is the largest river in the United States.

REMARK.—*The superlative form is often used by good writers in comparison of two things, particularly if there are only two in all.* (*His right hand is the largest*)

Lesson 134.

RULES AND CAUTIONS.

XXI. Avoid double comparatives and double superlatives; as,

This was the most unkindest cut of all. (Omit *most.*)

XXII. When the comparative form is used, the latter term of comparison should exclude the former; as,

My new horse is better than **any** I have ever had, *should be* than any I have had before.

REMARK.—*The comparative is usually followed by* **than,** *the superlative is preceded by* **the** *and followed by* **of.** *A comparative preceded by* **the** *may be followed by* **of**; *as, He was the wiser of the two. Some words implying the comparative are followed by* **to**; *as,* **superior** *to,* **preferable** *to, etc.*

XXIII. When the superlative form is used, the latter term of comparison should include the former; as,

He was the best-natured boy in his **class.** The latter term *class* includes the former term *he.* **He** was the best-natured of his **associates** is incorrect, because he could not be one of his own associates—the latter term does not include the former. Therefore the superlative should not be used.

XXIV. Do not use comparative terminations or adverbs of degree with adjectives that do not admit of comparison, and avoid comparing a thing with itself; as,

A more universal opinion, *should be* An opinion more nearly universal, or more common.

Lesson 135.

EXERCISES UNDER THE RULES IN LESSONS 133 AND 134.

a. Fill the blanks:

Which of the three brothers is the *Superlative.* ——?

That picture is *Comparative.* —— any you have had ——.

He was the abler man of —— ——.

b. Correct the following:

1. The poor want some advantages which the rich enjoy; but we should not therefore account those happy and these miserable. 2. Bring a new can of milk. 3. She was the most miserablest creature in existence. 4. Mrs. Hayes was the most plainly dressed of any other lady present. 5. The most superior article can be obtained there. 6. Wheat is more nutritious than any grain. 7. Wycliffe should be called the father of English prose, if Chaucer is called the father of English poetry. The one was the courtly student, the other, the vigorous preacher. 8. This is the taller of the three trees. 9. A baked dish of pork and beans. 10. The ignorant and the wise should live side by side; then when these get into trouble, those could help them out. 11. Which of them two flowers is the prettiest? 12. I know a more preferable way. (Preferable implies a comparison of two.) 13. The most principal rules should be learned thoroughly. 14. The use of tobacco is, of all other extravagant habits, the most disgustingly selfish. 15. There is no vice so costly and degrading as drunkenness. 16. China is more populous than any country in the world. 17. The tower of Paris will be the tallest of all the other towers since Babel.

Lesson 136.

COMPOSITION EXERCISES.

a. Write two sentences, using the comparative form.

b. Write two sentences, using the superlative form.

c. Write two sentences, using adjectives that can not be compared.

d. Write two sentences, contrasting *this* and *that*.

e. Place a suitable noun after each of the following adjectives:

Great, wise, high, long, bright, roaring, sleeping, fifteen, awful, terrible, pale, delicious, frosty, ripe, wet, a few, lean, natural, gay, these, those, that, persevering, stooping.

Lesson 137.

COMPOSITION EXERCISES.

f. Prefix an adjective to each of the following, without using the same adjective twice:

Deer, child, goose, hero, negro, work, fence, fear, delay, vices,

actions, story, porch, judge, mountain, woman, leaf, actor, traitor, wolf, attorney, body.

g. Insert the definite article:

Henry Eighth, reasons most obvious, man of means, new books, better way, first and last, high and low, three graces, how great provocation, all modern writers.

h. Insert the indefinite article:

Such power, open window, what incident, too great variety, universal opinion, so great joke, uniform course, few dollars, little hope.

i. Arrange each set of words so as to form a good sentence:

(1) Good, one, is, man, better, a, community, for, than, hundred, ones, a, bad.

(2) Gives, Earth, Spring, green, shroud, to, soft, beautiful, delicate, of, moss, a.

(3) Round-faced, that, who, is carrying, boy, box, a, large, peaches, rosy-cheeked, of, has, a cheerful, heart, honest.

(4) Hundreds, ferns, tall, of, graceful, wave green plumes, their, the, rocks, over, gray.

j. Name all the parts of speech in the sentences you have arranged from the above. Parse the adjectives in the sentences you have made.

Have you used the comma correctly?

Lesson 138.

Composition Exercises.

k. Make six sentences, each of which shall contain three adjectives, one from each of these lists. Be careful about the comma:

1.	2.	3.
A	long	blue
the	dark	sunny
those	tall	meddlesome
this	lazy	purple
every	blue-eyed	warm
a few	sweet-tempered	tender

Notice whether the adjectives are of the same rank or of different ranks.

1. Write a sentence comparing the horse and the ox, with regard to height.

2. Write a sentence expressing a comparison between the horse and all other animals.

3. Write a sentence comparing the sea lion and the whale, with regard to any quality.

4. Compare the story you heard last with all you have ever heard.

5. Compare with one another three flowers that you have seen.

CHAPTER V.

ADVERBS.

Lesson 139.

Uses of Adverbs.

The word *adverb* means *added to a verb.*

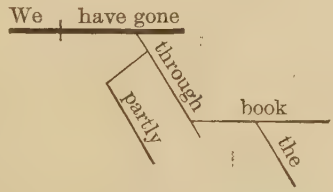
You have already learned that adverbs may be added also to adjectives and to other adverbs. Let us examine some of their other uses.

Notice what the italicized words modify and what they show:

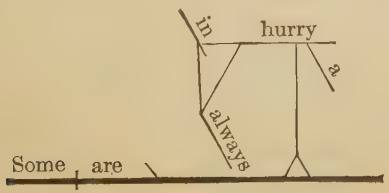
1. The boat approached *rapidly.*
2. We saw a boat approaching *rapidly.*
3. The officer ordered the small boat to approach *rapidly.*

What does *rapidly* modify in (2) and (3)?

4. That is *exactly* right.
5. It lies *exactly* opposite the town.
6. We have gone *partly* through the book.



7. He stood *just* under the bridge.
8. She is *seldom* seen.
9. She is *seldom* at work.
10. Some are *always* in a hurry.

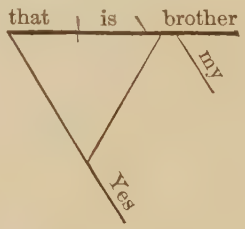


11. The heavenly bodies are *perpetually* in motion.

Notice that (9) means *seldom working*, (10) means *always hurrying*, (11) means *in perpetual motion;* but (5), (6), and (7) can not be changed in this way. In these sentences, *exactly* (5), *partly* (6), and *just* (7), modify the preposition following; but *seldom* (9), *always* (10), and *perpetual* (11), modify whole phrases.

Next examine the following:

1. *Yes,* that is my brother.



2. *No,* you can not have it.
3. *Perhaps* he is the one.
4. *Surely* goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life.

The italicized adverbs modify the whole assertion, and it is doubtful whether they should be construed as modifying any particular word in the assertion.

REMARK.—*As these adverbs do not modify any particular word in the sentence, some grammarians call them independent.* **Yes** *and* **no** *are called, also, responsives, because they can answer a question alone; as,*

Are you going? **Yes.** = Yes, I am going.

Summary: Adverbs, then, may modify verbs, verbals, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, whole phrases, or whole assertions. They most frequently, however, modify verbs or verbals, and, as verbals were formerly considered a class of verbs, the name *adverb* (ad+verb) was appropriate. Adverbs having no other use are sometimes called *simple adverbs.*

Exercise:

Write two sentences illustrating each of the above uses of adverbs.

Lesson 140.

Uses of Adverbs.

Interrogative Adverbs.

Besides these uses, adverbs may modify by asking or implying questions, and are then called *interrogative adverbs;* as,

Where did he find it? Guess *where* he found it. *When* did you come? *How* can you tell? Show me *how* you tell.

(See, under pronouns, the lessons on interrogatives.)

Conjunctive Adverbs.

Analyze and diagram the two following sentences:

1. Come when you are ready.
2. I go where I choose.

What is the connective in each sentence? What does the connective show?

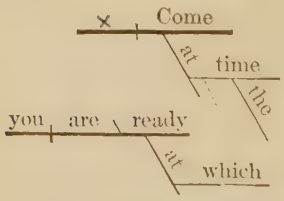
These are called *connective* (or *conjunctive*) *adverbs*, because they join a subordinate clause to the word modified.

A conjunctive adverb connects a subordinate clause to the principal, and modifies some part of either or both clauses.

Many adverbs are abridged phrases. We can generally tell what word or words a conjunctive adverb modifies, by expanding it into one or two phrases, and then seeing to what each phrase would belong; as, Come *when* you are ready.

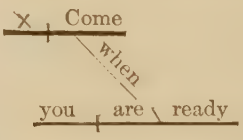
Expanded: *Come* **at the time at which** *you are ready.*

Diagram of Expanded Sentence.



(*At the time* modifies *come* and *at which* modifies *ready;* hence, *when* modifies a word in each clause.)

Diagram of Sentence not Expanded.



But in the sentence,

I saw the field **where** *he was shot,*

The conjunctive adverb *where* equals only one phrase, viz.: *on which.*

The expanded sentence is,

I saw the field **on which** *he was shot.*

The phrase *on which* modifies *shot* only.

Diagram of Expanded Sentence.

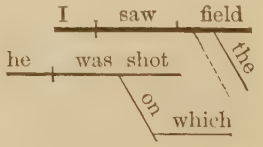
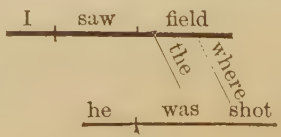


Diagram of Sentence not Expanded.



Lesson 141.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

Composition Exercise:

Write sentences containing the conjunctive adverbs *because*, *until*, *before*, *as*, *where*, and *when;* then change the adverbs to phrases, and determine what each adverb modifies.

Lesson 142.

Exercise:

Review all the sentences given in the last three lessons, and notice again what each adverb shows; then what each in the following shows:

1. Speak *now*. He wrote *yesterday*. I will do it *soon*. *When* will he come? (*Time*)
2. Come *here*. Look *upward*. *Where* did you find that knife? (*Direction or place*)
3. She could *scarcely* speak. You are *very* kind. Lizzie is *quite* amiable. (*Degree*)
4. Miss N. speaks *distinctly*. They came *somehow*. Do not act *foolishly*. (*Manner*)
5. *Why* did he save the child? We can not go out in the boat *because* the wind is too high. (*Cause*)
6. I was *only* joking. Robert has *but* one hand. She plays *only*, she does not sing. (*Exclusion*)
7. She plays, and sings *also*. The baby sang, *too*. (*Addition*)

Hence adverbs may be divided into the several classes, adverbs of *time*, *place*, *degree*, *manner*, *cause*, *exclusion*, *addition*, etc.

REMARKS.—1. *Most adverbs of manner are derived from adjectives by adding* **ly**; *as,*

Wise, wisely; sweet, sweetly; slow, slowly.

2. *Adverbs of exclusion and of addition are classed by some as adverbs of degree.*

3. *Some adverbs are used merely for emphasis; as,*

Yes, **indeed,** it is very fine; no, **indeed,** you must not go.

4. *Adverbs of time have various shades of meaning interesting to notice, but perhaps not absolutely necessary; namely, time present, past, future, relative, absolute, repeated, and order of time.*

5. *Many words may be used either as adjectives or as adverbs; as,*

Hard, near, like, above, early, only, high, low, fast.

Composition Exercise:

Write two sentences under each kind of adverb, using words not given above, if possible.

Lesson 143.

Parsing Adverbs.

Exercise:

Classify the adverbs by telling whether simple, interrogative, or conjunctive, whether of time, place, degree, etc., and tell what they modify, according to the following

Models:

1. Have the men arrived yet?

Yet is a simple adverb of time, modifying the verb *arrived.*

2. They will wait *until* the wind goes down.

Until is a conjunctive adverb of time connecting the subordinate clause, *the wind goes down*, to *will wait*, and modifying both *will wait* and *goes.* (*Until*=*until the time at which.*)

3. Where did you see them? *Where* is an interrogative adverb of place modifying *did see.* 4. The fire went out while Susan was dreaming. 5. They told her the news again, but she seemed scarcely to realize it, for she was nearly crazed. 6. Speak gently to the erring. 7. But wherefore do you droop, why look you so sad? 8. The mail comes but once a day. 9. Poor Lear became stark mad. 10. The affrighted people ran hither and thither, up and down. 11. Andrew is too particular. 12. Who comes oftener than I? 13. Come earlier next time.

Lesson 144.

Comparison of Adverbs.

Examining the last three sentences in the preceding lesson, you will notice that some adverbs admit of comparison like adjectives.

Foolishly,	more foolishly,	most foolishly. (Using the adverbs *more* and *most*)
Often,	oftener,	oftenest. (*Addition of* **er** *and* **est**)
Far,	farther,	farthest. (*Somewhat irregular*)
Forth,	further,	furthest. (*Somewhat irregular*)
Badly or ill,	worse,	worst. (*Irregular*)
Well,	better,	best. (*Irregular*)
Little,	less,	least. (*Irregular*)
Much,	more,	most. (*Irregular*)

There are not many adverbs that admit of comparison, but a few vary their form to express degree, in the same manner as adjectives.

Exercises:

a. Prefix the comparative adverbs of *increase* to each of the following:

Patiently, comfortably, easily, earnestly, economically, profitably, secretly.

b. Prefix the comparative adverbs of *decrease* to each of the above.

Lesson 145.

Notice the following:

Hence, get thee gone! [Go] hence.
Away to the meadows, away! [Come] away.
Down, soothless insulter! [Get] down.
Once more unto the breach, dear friends! [Advance] unto the breach.

The italicized adverbs modify verbs understood, as shown by the words in brackets. The omission of the verb gives greater strength and animation to the sentences.

Exercise:

Select the adverbs in the following sentences, and see if you can strengthen the sentences by omitting one or more of the words:

1. Come here, my boy, take this bottle to the druggist for your mother's medicine. Run quick! she may die.

2. Go hence, go home, you idle creatures!

3. Step forward, march!

Adverbs, being more concise than their equivalent phrases, add strength to the language; thus,

Where is he?=*At what place* is he? *Why?=For what reason? Wisely=In a wise manner.*

Exercise:

Write ten sentences containing adverbs, and then change the adverbs to phrases, where possible.

Lesson 146.

RULES FOR THE USE OF ADVERBS, AND CAUTIONS.

I. Do not use adjectives for adverbs, nor adverbs when quality, not manner, is meant.

II. Do not repeat or exaggerate the idea.

III. The rules under adjectives, relating to the use of comparatives and superlatives, apply also to adverbs.

IV. Be careful to place adverbs where they will make the meaning clear and the sentence smooth.

REMARK.—"*For the placing of adverbs no definite rules can be given.*"—Goold Brown.

(*1*) *Those that modify adjectives or adverbs, prepositions, or whole phrases, almost always immediately precede them.*

(*2*) *But those that modify compound verbs, generally follow the first part of the verb.*

(*3*) *Good usage does not allow the placing of an adverb between* **to** *and the rest of the verbal.*

Examples:

A **very** clear sky. **Quite** slowly. **Half-way** around the grounds. He may **not** have done wrong. **Merely** to speak (*not* to merely speak).

(*4*) *But adverbs are frequently transposed for the sake of emphasis:*

I have **to-day** seen ten sea-lions. **To-day** I have seen ten sea-lions.

Composition Exercise:

From the following list select a suitable word for each blank in the sentences:

Sweet, firmly, badly, sad, harshly, harsh, firm, sweetly, bad, sadly.

1. The man spoke ——— to the child.
2. Such expressions sound ———
3. The soldiers stood ——— at their post.
4. This red rose smells very ———
5. My friend spoke ——— of her loss.
6. The work is ——— done.
7. Your canary sings ———
8. He is a brave man who ——— refuses to yield to temptation.
9. How ——— she must feel.
10. I feel ——— to-day.

Lesson 147.

a. Use the following correctly in sentences:

proud	clear	angry	prompt	bashful
proudly	clearly	angrily	promptly	bashfully

b. Explain what each of the following sentences means, and name the adjectives and the adverbs:

1. She looks graceful in that dress.
2. The platform was gracefully draped.
3. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
4. Slow and sad was the music she played.
5. Have you talked with Herbert? No, I have *only* written to him.
6. I *only* have written to Herbert.
7. I wrote to Herbert *only*, yesterday.
8. I wrote to Herbert, *only* yesterday.
9. I wrote to Herbert yesterday *only*.
10. Nellie has *only* heard of this book.

c. Rewrite the last sentence, changing the position of *only* as many times as possible, and tell what each new sentence means.

Lesson 148.

Errors in the Use of Adverbs.

Exercise:

Correct according to the following

Model:

Petunias smell very sweetly at nightfall.

This sentence is incorrect, because *sweetly*, which is used to express *quality* of the petunias, not the *manner of smelling*, has the adverbial form, violating the caution: "Do not use adverbs when quality, not manner, is to be expressed." The adjective is *sweet*. Corrected: *Petunias smell very sweet at nightfall.*

1. Such sentences sound awkwardly to me. 2. Some things are easier done than others. 3. This here knife is awfully sharp. 4. Which of those five horses runs the fastest? 5. Miss C. sang gorgeously; she always sings better than any one I ever heard. 6. I can't do that there example. 7. She reads the most distinctly of any other member of the club. 8. Some children are in trouble always. 9. River valleys are more productive often than great plains. 10. We know very little of her life previously to this time. 11. I like this fruit better than any I have ever tasted. 12. Miss N. thought Mr. Simpson's the most preferable advice.

Lesson 149.

Parsing Adverbs.

Exercise:

After correcting the sentences in the preceding lesson, parse all the adjectives and adverbs, using the same formula for both. Write out the first six in the form of an abstract, thus:

That is done more easily.

More easily

- Simple adverb of manner.
- Compared, { easily, / more easily, / most easily.
- Comparative form.
- Modifies verb *is done*.
- Rule.—"Adverbs modify verbs, verbals, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, phrases, or whole assertions."

Note.—*In rapid parsing, it is better to repeat only the part of the rule that is applicable to the word parsed; thus, in the preceding sentence, "Adverbs modify verbs."*

Lesson 150.

RULES AND CAUTIONS.

1. It is not pleasant to-day, I do n't think.

This sentence is intended to express a negative, but the second negative denies the first. "I don't think it is very pleasant to-day," is illogical. Say, "I think it is not very pleasant to-day."

V. To express one negation employ but one negative, placing the negative in the clause to which it really belongs.

REMARK.—**Neither-nor** *are virtually but one negative, as they always accompany each other.* "*He is* **neither** *wise* **nor** *brilliant*"="*He is* **not either** *wise* **or** *brilliant.*"

Exercise:

Write four negative sentences.

---

2. I do not know whether to start or NO.

Supply the ellipsis and see what *no* modifies. *No* may be an adjective; as,

She has **no** *friends.*

It may modify a comparative; as,

No *sooner said than done.*

Or it may answer a question; as,

No, *he has not returned.*

But it is not in accordance with the best usage to have *no* modify a verb or a verbal. Substitute *not;* as,

I do not know whether to start or not [to start].

VI. Do not use *no* instead of *not* to modify a verb or a verbal.

---

3. He said HOW **the boy could not resist temptation.**

Analyze the sentence. Notice the object of *said.* What is the connective? *How* is an adverb of manner. The proper connective for an object clause, if any is needed, is the conjunction *that.*

VII. Do not use the adverb *how* as a connective or with the conjunction *that*.

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4. **I did not think it would grow** THAT **large. My father is** THAT **tall he can reach the ceiling. He has a pencil** THAT **long.**

Each of the above sentences, and all like them, would be better if *so* were used in place of *that*. While some of them may be barely admissible in conversation, it will be far better for you to observe the following:

VIII. Never use *that* as an adverb of degree.

---

5. **Most adverbs are contracted phrases.**

Thus: *Thence* means *from that place*. *Whence* means *from what place*. *Hence* means *from this place* or *from this reasoning*. Therefore it is unnecessary to put the preposition *from* before any of these words. *Where* means *at what place* or *to what place;* therefore to say, "Where is it at?" is to use the word *at* incorrectly.

IX. Do not prefix the preposition *from* to the adverb *hence*, *whence*, or *thence*, or any other preposition to adverbs that already contain the idea conveyed by the preposition.

Exercises:

a. Correct the following:

1. That poor child has n't no father. 2. Have you inquired whether the tide will be high to-morrow or no? 3. I was told how that it would be high tide at six P. M. 4. It was that cold that the fowls' combs were all frozen. 5. From hence we deduce the following rule. 6. Where is that policeman going to? 7. He is not very happy, I don't think. 8. If you have not neither dictionary nor reader, how do you expect to learn? 9. From thence they journeyed to Spain. 10. Mr. P. remarked how that his son was becoming unmanageable, but he had not got any bad habits, neither. 11. I know that much, at least, whether any more or no. 12. I never had nobody's knife nor nothing.

b. After correcting the above, parse each adverb.

Lesson 151.

Composition Exercises—Adverbs.

a. Use the following adverbs in sentences, observing the rules already given:

Even, nevertheless, besides, withal, herein, thereat, afterward, till, almost, twice, hence, already, no, yes.

b. Use three adverbs to tell how a baby cries; two to tell how a good boy studies; four to describe the roaring of the sea; one to tell how much you like music.

c. Expand into phrases the adverbs in the sentences just made.

Lesson 152.

d. Make sentences in which some of the following adverbs shall modify adjectives and some shall modify adverbs:

Very, somewhat, almost, too, generally, only, remarkably, nearly.

e. Make two sentences for each of the following words, using each first as an adjective; secondly, as an adverb:

Hard, most, but, what, no, less, early, long, much, most, only.

f. Change these adjectives to adverbs:

Perfect, square, good, slow, easy, smooth, harsh, much, gentle, bad, eloquent, faithful, pretty, whole, patient.

Lesson 153.

Miscellaneous Exercises for Correction under Adjectives and Adverbs.

Correct by the full formula, or simply quote the rule violated; then give the corrected form:

1. She is a small little girl. 2. The then monarch was tyrannical and vain. 3. Such a harsh course will produce nothing but evil. 4. That molasses is n't good for nothing. 5. The proud and the humble are often brought into contact; those form the door-mat upon which these condescend to wipe their feet. 6. The disputants grew excitedly and behaved very bad. 7. Try it over again, or she will scold you good. 8. Your garden looks some better now, but it needs watering most every day. 9. She was dreadful glad I came, but I only saw her once. 10. Helen nearly rowed across the river. 11. You are to only come when I call. 12. I can do it easier than you can. 13. Henry was awful glad to meet the Portuguese sailor, who knew more about fishing than any man he ever saw. 14. The two sisters enjoyed one another's society. 15. Wilkins was an idle and an ignorant man.

CHAPTER VI.

CONJUNCTIONS.

Lesson 154.

Analyze these sentences and notice what office besides that of connectives is filled by *that* and *when:*

1. People *that* live in glass houses should not throw stones.
2. The services were nearly over *when* we reached the church.

Notice the use of the italicized words in the following:

3. How sweet *and* solemn is this scene!
4. Sink *or* swim, live *or* die, survive *or* perish, I give my heart *and* my hand to this vote.
5. Not Peter, *but* Paul, was the apostle to the Gentiles.
6. What by diligence *and* what by perseverance, he overcame all obstacles.
7. You may place the manuscript *either* in the box *or* upon the table.
8. Napoleon was banished to Elba, *but* he would not remain there.
9. She behaves *as if* she were insane.
10. *If* you have tears, prepare to shed them now.
11. I know *that* he is lost.

The connectives in the sentences 3 to 11, inclusive, perform no other office than to connect.

Connectives that perform no other office than to connect are called **Conjunctions.**

Note.—*The word* **conjunction** = **con** (*together*) + **jungere** (*to join*).

In sentences 3, 4, and 5, the parts connected are *words* of equal rank; *i. e.*, performing the same office, or in the same construction; in 6 and 7, the parts connected are *phrases* of equal rank; in 8, *clauses.*

Lesson 155.

Coördinate Conjunctions.

Conjunctions that connect parts of the same rank, or order, are called **Coördinate Conjunctions.**

Remark.—*The prefix* **co** *means* **with,** *or* **together.**

REMARK.—*Parts of a sentence are of equal rank when they have the same use, or construction.*

A coördinate conjunction may join:

(1) Two or more substantive words in the same construction; as,

(a) My father *and* I (two subjects) chopped wood all day.
(b) Mr. Foster is a mason *and* carpenter. (two attributes)
(c) You may have either coffee *or* tea. (two objects)

(2) Two or more verbs having the same subject; as,

We went to San Francisco *and* visited Golden Gate Park.

(3) Two or more adjectives, verbals, or adverbs modifying the same word; as,

(a) He is an earnest *and* patient student. (two adjectives)
(b) We can stop at the hotel *either* going *or* returning. (two verbals)
(c) Try to work rapidly *yet* quietly. (two adverbs)

(4) Two or more phrases modifying the same word; as,

I am working for you *as well as* for myself.

(5) Two or more clauses modifying the same word; as,

I will visit you when the weather is warmer *and* when I have more time.

(6) Two independent clauses; as,

The wheat is all cut *and* the mowers will leave in the morning.

(7) A word and a phrase, and sometimes a phrase and a clause, if they both modify the same word; as,

(a) Keep your desks clean *and* in order. (a word and a phrase)
(b) Do not play in the street *nor* where I can not see you. (a phrase and a clause)

REMARKS.—*The principal coördinate conjunctions are* **and, but, or, nor, while, yet, as well as, neither..nor, either..or, whether..or, as.**

While, *used to express time, is a conjunctive adverb; as,*
I will stay **while** *you are away.*

Used in the sense of **and** *or* **but,** *it is a pure conjunction; as,*
While *he is interested in our work, he has not time to help us.* **While** *or* **though** *he is merciful, he is also just.*

As *is frequently used to introduce an attribute of subject or object; as,*
He was employed **as** *clerk.*

Lesson 156.

SUBORDINATE AND CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

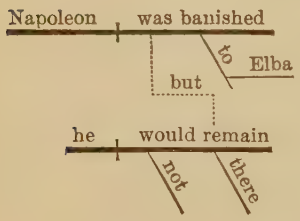
In sentences 9, 10, and 11, Lesson 154, the clauses connected are of *unequal* rank.

Conjunctions that connect clauses of unequal rank are called **Subordinate Conjunctions.**

In sentence 11, the subordinate conjunction introduces a noun clause.

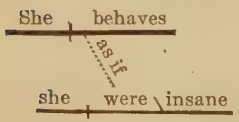
Napoleon was banished to Elba, but he would not remain there.

Diagrams.



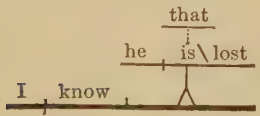
(Compound sentence. Coördinate conjunction, connecting clauses.)

She behaves as if she were insane.



(Subordinate conjunction, connecting clauses of a complex sentence.)

I know that he is lost.



(Object clause in a complex sentence.)

Conjunctions joining parts in the same line of thought, showing addition, apposition, supposition, cause and effect, or introducing a complementary part, are **copulative**; as,

(a) She is both pious *and* intelligent. (Addition)
(b) It costs ten cents, *or* one dime. (Apposition)

(c) *If* I were a giant, I could lift that rock. (Supposition)
(d) *If* you try earnestly, you will succeed. (Cause and effect)
(e) I saw *that* she was injured. (Introducing the complement)

Conjunctions connecting parts in different lines of thought, that is, denoting separation or opposition, are **adversative**; as,

(a) The dog would not eat the oats himself *nor* let the horse have them. (Separation)
(b) Henry is slow, *but* persevering. (Opposition)

REMARK.—*Two or more words taken together to perform one connective office, form a compound conjunction:* **as if, as though, as well as.** *But in such expressions as,*

He is **as well as** ever,

well *is an adjective and the first* **as** *is an adverb modifying* **well.**

Some conjunctions and adverbs or adjectives are used in pairs, sustaining a mutual relation and inclosing one of the parts connected. Such words are called *correlatives.*

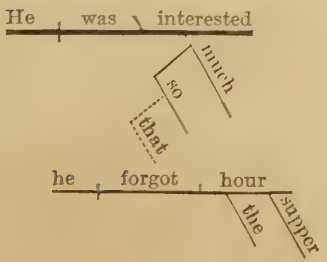
Thus, in the sentence,

You may place the manuscript *either* in the box *or* upon the table,

the correlative *either–or* connects the phrases *in that box* and *upon the table;* the first phrase is between the parts of the correlative.

The first word of a correlative is usually an adverb or an adjective; as,

He was *so* much interested in his book *that* he forgot the supper hour.
He is *not only* handsome *but also* intelligent.
His manners were *such* [manners] *that* genteel people would not tolerate him.



(*That* is the subordinate conjunction correlative of *so.*)

Notice that *words* or *phrases* connected by a *conjunction* are always of *equal* rank, and all together form a compound element in the sentence. *Clauses* connected by a conjunction are sometimes of *unequal* rank.

[**Note to the Teacher.**—1. Words connected by *conjunctions* are of *equal* rank, or in the same construction; words connected by *prepositions*, of *unequal* rank.

2. Let the pupils make an abstract of the preceding work upon conjunctions and give a topical recitation, with original examples.]

Lesson 157.

Parsing Conjunctions.

In parsing a conjunction, (1) classify, (2) show the parts *connected*, (3) give so much of the rule as is applicable, as follows:

1. A coördinate conjunction connects parts of equal rank.

2. A subordinate conjunction connects clauses of unequal rank or introduces a noun clause.

Remark.—*A subordinate clause always limits, modifies, or completes some part of the principal clause; in this sense, all the noun clauses are subordinate;* i. e., *subject and attribute clauses, as well as object clauses.*

In parsing a correlative, show what the second part of the correlative joins.

Model:

Sometimes people are so happy that they become selfish.

That is a subordinate conjunction connecting the subordinate clause *they become selfish* to *happy*, through the correlative adverb *so*.

Rule.—"A subordinate conjunction connects clauses of unequal rank."

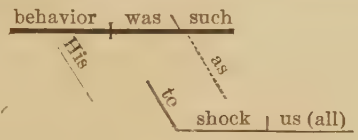
Exercise:

Parse the conjunctions in the following sentences:

1. Ophelia was gentle and obedient, but her father was foolish and tyrannical. 2. Seldom, if ever, could one find a truer friend or more faithful counselor than Kent. 3. Though Lear had become insane, he was not past recovery. 4. Othello was either insane or madly jealous. 5. Desdemona was neither false nor fickle. 6. Show me whether it can be done or not. 7. That matter is as important as this. 8. That matter is not so important as this. 9. As you sow, so shall you reap. 10. As six is to twelve, so is fifteen to thirty. 11. She is so industrious that

she must succeed. 12. She is not so industrious as to warrant success. 13. His behavior was such that we were all shocked. 14. His behavior was such as to shock us all.

Note.—**Behavior** *is understood after the pronominal* **such**, *and the subordinate conjunction* **as** *is used idiomatically to connect the infinitive phrase to* **such**.



15. American students are required to learn other things besides reading and spelling. 16. He would rather work than play. 17. Some people never have learned and never will learn industry.

Lesson 158.

Rules and Cautions.

From the preceding sentences we deduce the following additional rules and cautions:

I. In the choice of conjunctions, have regard to the rank of the parts connected, as well as to their meaning. See sentences 1, 2, and 3 in the preceding list.

II. Do not use conjunctions needlessly nor instead of other parts of speech; as,

(a) When *that* she saw her mistake she was much confused. (*That* is not needed.)

(b) Try *and* come, if possible. (*To come* is the object of *try*, and the meaning is not that the person addressed is *both to try* and *to come*, but *to try to come*.)

And denotes addition: *but, lest, while,* and *or,* separation.

Or may connect terms in apposition; as, We came to a small *bay,* or *inlet.* The appositional term is set off by the comma.

If is used to express supposition, doubt, or concession; *though* or *although*, to express concession; as,

Though she is a deaf mute, she is very intelligent.

That introduces noun clauses, and adverbial clauses of purpose or result. It is frequently understood in a noun clause. Thus,

I heard [that] you were there. (Noun clause. *That* understood)
He behaves so strangely *that* people think him insane. (Adverbial clause)

III. The following words are the proper correlatives; be careful to give them the right place in the sentence, that there may be no doubt as to what they are intended to modify and connect.

Note.— *When the correlative is coördinate, the first of the terms to be connected, and nothing more nor less, should be placed between the two parts of the correlative. See 4, 14, and 15, below.*

1. *Either—or;* as in sentence (4) last lesson, offering a choice.
2. *Neither—nor;* as in (5), denying a choice.
3. *Whether—or;* as in (6).
4. *Both—and;* as, He is *both* saving *and* industrious.
5. *Though—yet;* as, *Though* he slay me, *yet* will I trust him.
6. *As—as;* as in (7), with an adjective or an adverb, to affirm equality.
7. *So—as;* as in (8), denying equality.
8. *As—so;* as in (9) and (10), affirming equality by means of verbs.
9. *So—as;* to explain the degree; as, How can one descend to a thing *so* low *as* theft?
   (This is abridged from the clause.)
10. *So—that;* as in (11), with a clause following to express result.
11. *So—as;* as in (12), with an infinitive following to show result.
12. *Such—that;* as in (13).
13. *Such—as;* as in (14), the clause in (13) being changed to an infinitive.

So—as and *such—as*, in these cases, are well established idioms of our language, although exceptions to the rule that subordinate conjunctions connect clauses of unequal rank. The infinitive phrase is, however, abridged from a subordinate clause.

14. *The—the;* as, *The* sooner you come, *the* better for me.

15. *Not only—but also;* as, He inherited talent *not only* from his father, *but also* from his mother.

REMARKS.—*According to the best modern usage,* **not** *is preferred to* **no** *to modify a verb or a verbal after* **whether—or.**

In poetry **or—or** *is frequently used instead of* **either—or,** *and* **nor—nor,** *instead of* **neither—nor.**

Lesson 159.

Exercise:

Study the above list, and use each pair of correlatives in an original sentence.

Lesson 160.

Exercise:

a. Fill the following with the proper connectives, and give reasons:

1. He was not —— ashamed —— afraid. 2. My health is —— [health] —— I can not accept the position. 3. She is —— gay —— a lark. 4. —— three is to nine, —— is four to twelve. 5. He gave me —— —— good words, —— —— assistance. 6. The work was —— difficult —— it discouraged him. 7. He tried very hard, —— he failed. 8. He can play, —— —— —— sing. 9. —— the man is a knave, he has never been arrested. 10. You must eat, —— you will die. 11. I paid fifty cents, —— half a dollar, for it. 12. —— sooner, —— better. 13. Who knows —— he is not industrious. 14. Tell me —— I must go —— not.

b. Most of the following sentences are incorrect. Tell which are incorrect, give the reasons, and then give the correct form:

1. My business is such as I can not accept the office. 2. There will not be as much this year as last. 3. Not only he gave me kind words, but also assistance. 4. He will not either study or work. 5. She both is careful and prudent. 6. Review frequently, so as that you may strengthen your memory. 7. The work was as difficult as to discourage him. 8. How do you know but what he may come? 9. Review frequently that you may strengthen your memory. 10. Show me whether you can do it or no. 11. As the tree falleth so it lieth. 12. There is no earthly happiness so secure as it cannot be destroyed. 13. I must be so honest to admit that I am ignorant. 14. We feared lest some accident had happened. 15. No one can deny but he is capable enough.

16. Is this book so useful as that one? 17. California climate, and which is very temperate, has become world-renowned. 18. But matter is not mind, is certain. 19. Neither women or children were to be seen upon the streets. 20. She seldom or ever has her lessons.

[**To the Teacher.**—Hold the pupil responsible, in all recitations, oral or written, for the application of all the rules of construction previously presented. In this way the study of grammar will cease to be a "mere rattling of dry bones."]

Lesson 161.

Rules and Cautions.

IV. When two or more connected terms refer jointly to another, each should make good sense with it; as,

"It never has and never can be done," is incorrect, for the terms *has* and *can* refer jointly to *be done*, and *never has be done* does not make good sense. Complete the first term; thus, It never *has been done* and never can be [done].

V. After *else*, *other*, *otherwise*, *rather*, and all comparatives, the latter term of comparison should be introduced by *than*, unless something additional is meant; as,

He would **rather** work **than** play.

When something additional is meant, *besides* may be used instead of *than;* as,

We have **other** lessons to learn **besides** this.

Exercise:

(a) From the following, choose suitable words to fill the blanks in the sentences below, and give reasons for the choice:

than, as, so, besides, but.

1. I could not answer otherwise —— this. 2. The moon is nearer —— the sun, —— not —— brilliant. 3. Such tricks are nothing else —— knavery. 4. Truth is no sooner crushed to earth —— it rises again. 5. Man is something else —— flesh and blood. 6. Henry is as studious —— his sister, —— he is not —— quick.

(b) Write two original sentences similar to each of the above.

(c) Correct the following:

1. He could not do otherwise ~~but~~ than apologize. 2. Wilton is more active but not ~~so~~ as persevering as his sister. 3. Such words are nothing else ~~but~~ than insults. 4. The school should give the pupil something else than mere knowledge. 5. Man is no sooner forgiven ~~but~~ than he sins again. 6. Vegetable diet is not ~~as~~ so strengthening ~~but~~ as more cooling to the blood than ~~meat~~ meat is. 7. He has made alterations and additions to the work.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

Lesson 162.

Review the definition of a preposition, in Lesson 50.

The word *preposition*=*pre* (*before*) and *ponere* (*to place*).

The preposition is generally placed before its object.

Exercise:

Point out the prepositions in these sentences:

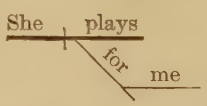
1. Look at me. 2. Go to town. 3. He ran into the barn. 4. She rode behind her brother. 5. You should come after me early.

The *words* connected by *conjunctions*, as you have learned, are always in the same construction and of equal rank; but words connected by *prepositions* are of unequal rank.

Diagrams.

Conjunction:

Preposition:



Some of the relations shown by prepositions are illustrated in the following:

1. He is rowing *toward* the shore. (Direction)
2. She came *from* Canada. (Direction)
3. This is the home *of* a millionaire. (Possession)
4. Grace looks *like* her mother, and behaves *like* her, also. (Similarity, or resemblance)
5. She is quite *unlike* her father. (Dissimilarity)
6. He walked *in* the park. (Place already within bounds or limits)
7. He walked *to* the park. (Direction)
8. He walked *into* the park. (Position + direction=entrance with regard to a place or with regard to a new condition)
9. { The boat touched *at* San Francisco. (Position at a point)
   { We live *at* Soquel. (Position without regard to its limits. At=nearness or presence)

10. Ella came *with* her father. (Accompaniment)
11. Frank was stung *by* a bee. (Agency)
12. She sits *by* her window. (Position)

[**To the Teacher.**—There are numerous other relations shown by prepositions, but many of them require highly cultivated powers of discrimination, to distinguish their differences clearly. This must be a matter of growth. But since the choice of prepositions frequently depends upon the relation intended, the pupil should begin to make these distinctions as early as possible, and he should be led to observe carefully the usage of good authors.]

Lesson 163.

The Object of a Preposition.

The object of a preposition, as you have already seen in analyzing the preceding sentences, is usually a *noun*, a *pronoun*, or a *pronominal adjective*.

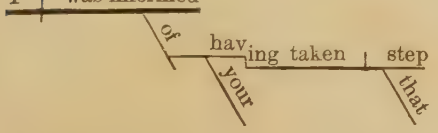
Exercise:

Give an example of each; then examine the following:

1. Is there any use of a man's *using* tobacco?
2. I was informed of your *having* taken that step.
3. We were talking about Mr. Black's *having sold* his handsome team.

In the above examples the object of the preposition is a verbal phrase formed from the verbal in **ing**.

Diagram.

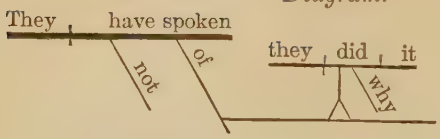


(Verbal phrase, object of preposition.)

4. They have not spoken of *why they did it.*
5. There was much talk about *who killed John Morgan.*

In the above, **why** and **who** are interrogatives implying a question, and the whole clause is the object of the preposition.

Diagram.



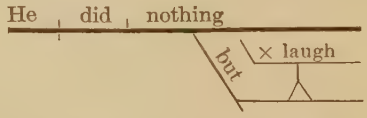
(Clause, object of preposition.)

The following use is very rare:

6. He did nothing *but* laugh.
7. No way *but* to go on remains.

Here **but** = except. In No. 6 its object is the verbal (**to**) **laugh**, in No. 7, **to go on.**

Diagram.



Summary: A preposition, then, may have for its object any *substantive word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause.*

Lesson 164.

List of the Prepositions.

The following are the words generally used as prepositions:

Aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, amid *or* amidst, among *or* amongst, around, at, athwart;—Bating, before, behind, below, beneath, beside *or* besides, between *or* betwixt, beyond, by;—Concerning;—Down, during;—Ere, except, excepting;—For, from;—In, into;—Mid *or* midst;—Notwithstanding;—Of, off, on, out-of, over, overthwart;—Past, pending;—Regarding, respecting, round;—Since;—Through, throughout, till, to, touching, toward *or* towards;—Under, underneath, until, unto, up, upon;—With, within, without.

Exercise:

Use each preposition in a good original sentence; consult the dictionary freely, and be careful to place the prepositional phrases where they will make the meaning clear.

Remarks.—(1) **Like** *and* **near** *were formerly considered adjectives or adverbs, with* **to** *or* **unto** *understood after them; as,*

She looks like [unto] her mother, and she behaves like [unto] her.
The horse stands near [to] the brook.

But since **to** *or* **unto** *is never expressed after* **like** *and* **near**, *it is thought more reasonable to consider* **like** *and* **near** *the connecting words,* **like** *showing the relation of resemblance, and* **near** *of position. This is also true of* **unlike**.

(2) *The word* **worth** *often becomes a preposition, connecting a noun object or a participle to the word that the phrase modifies, and showing the relation of value; as,*

The book is **worth** a dollar. My life is not **worth** preserving.

Lesson 165.

Variable Uses of Prepositions.

Some words in the list given above may become conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs, or even other parts of speech:

She went **above** me. (Preposition) Look **above**. (Adverb) The **above** list. (Adjective)

They came **after** him. (Preposition) They came **after** he sang. (Conjunctive adverb)

She stood **before** me. (Preposition) She went **before** he returned. (Conjunctive adverb)

Since you are so repentant, I will forgive you. (Conjunction) We have not heard **since** he went home. (Conjunctive adverb) We have not heard **since** noon. (Preposition)

The chief difference between a preposition and a conjunction or a conjunctive adverb is, that the preposition shows a relation between a word which is its object and some other word in the sentence, this object, if a declinable pronoun, requiring the object form; while the conjunction and the conjunctive adverb show no relations and therefore have no objects.

Exercise:

See how many of the prepositions in the list given, you can use as conjunctive adverbs. Remember that conjunctive adverbs connect clauses and modify something in one or in both. Make reasonable sentences.

Lesson 166.

There are no subdivisions of prepositions except the *simple* and the *compound* and a few *derived from verbs* and still retaining their verbal form. The compound prepositions are those composed of two words.

Exercises:

a. Use the following compound prepositions in sentences:

Instead of, aboard of, as to, from among, from under, from between, round about, as for, previous to.

b. Use the following, first as true verbals, then as prepositions:

Concerning, excepting, regarding, respecting, saving, touching.

c. Use the following as prepositions:

During, notwithstanding.

REMARK.—**During** *is from* **dure,** *to last* (*obs.*), *and* **notwithstanding** *from* **withstand,** *but they are never used as verbals.*

REMARK.—**But** *and* **save** *are now classed as prepositions, when equivalent to* **except;** *as,*

There was no one in the wagon **but** him (not **he**).

REMARK.—*When the objective word after a preposition is omitted, there is no relation shown, and the word, although usually a preposition, becomes, in this case, an adverb; as,*

He rode **by;** Come **in.** (Contracted from *Come into*)

Lesson 167.

PARSING PREPOSITIONS.

Exercise:

Parse the prepositions in the following sentences after this formula; try to distinguish the relations, and notice the position of each preposition:

Formula for parsing a preposition.

Classify,
Connecting its object ——
to the —— —— by showing
the relation of ——.
Rule.

MODEL:

He stood by the river.

By is a simple preposition connecting its object, *river*, to the *verb stood*, by showing the relation of *position*, or *nearness*.

Rule: A preposition connects its object to the word which the phrase limits or modifies, and shows the relation between them.

1. Coffee was introduced into England by an East India merchant. 2. He lives like a miser. 3. The town of Titipu is supposed to be located in Japan. 4. We drove through the large gateway, up the gentle ascent, to the door of the large mansion. 5. The pines at Pacific Grove are decorated with a fringe of gray moss. 6. The thief ran down the road, but finally threw his plunder down and escaped.

7. The stag at eve had drunk his fill,
Where danced the moon on Monan's rill,
And deep his midnight lair had made
In lone Glenartney's hazel shade.

Lesson 168.

THE CHOICE OF PREPOSITIONS.

Rule I.—Be careful to choose prepositions to express the relation intended, and to express it in accordance with the best usage.

REMARKS.—"*A happy and discriminating use of prepositions can be acquired only by an extended study of good authors.*"—Reed and Kellogg's Grammar.

While this is certainly true, yet much may be done to direct that study and increase the habit of observation, by giving the student some of the most accurate conclusions derived from the experience of others.

In the introduction to Worcester's Dictionary and in Campbell's "Handbook of Synonyms and Prepositions," may be found many useful suggestions.

The choice of a preposition is frequently determined, (1) *by the word preceding it,* (2) *by the word following it, or* (3) *by both together.*

The following suggestions may be of assistance in teaching a discriminating use of prepositions:

1. Abide **at** a place.
2. Abide **by** a decision.
3. Abide **with** a person.
4. Accommodate yourself **to** circumstances.
5. Accommodate some one **with** a favor.
6. Agree **to** a plan or proposition.

Agree **with** another person.
Angry **at** conduct.
Angry **with** a person.
Appoint **to** a position.
Appoint **over** another or others.
Compare **to** = liken to by way of illustration.
Compare **with** = to examine similar things with respect to quality.
Consists **in** a single thing.
Consists **of** two or more parts or things.
Die **by** an instrumentality.
Die **of** a disease.
Different **from**.
Differ **from** in regard to qualities.
Differ **with** another in opinion. (Worcester.)
Differ **from** another in opinion. (Campbell.)
Disappointed **in** something obtained, but not satisfactory.
Disappointed **of** something desired, but not obtained.
Indulge **in** a habit; as, theater-going.
Indulge myself or himself **with** a single thing; as, a glass of wine.
Intrude **into** a place having bounds; as, **into** your presence.
Intrude **upon** a person.
Joined **to** a thing; as, **to** his idols.
Joined **with** another person **in** some plan or work.
Live **at** a point without regard to its boundaries—(small or foreign).
Live **in** a place having definite boundaries.
Matter **with** (not **of**). (Campbell.)
Need **of**.
Want **of**.
Part **from** another, each other, etc.
Part **with** certain possessions—your property or children.
Reconcile **to**—to make friendly.
Reconcile **with**—to make consistent.
Sank **beneath** that which covers—beneath the waves.
Sank **in** something already entered, but more deeply.
Sank **into**—from without—indicating entrance.
Smile **at** a cause for laughter.
Smile **on** a person to denote approval.
Similar **to** (not **with**).
Strive **about** a disputed matter.
Strive **for** something desired.
Strive **with** another.
Taste **for** some accomplishment, occupation, etc.
Taste **of** food, literally or figuratively.
Touch **at** a point; as, **at** San Francisco.
Touch **on** or **upon** a subject.
Worthy **of**.

Lesson 169.

Choice of Prepositions.

Composition Exercise:

Put each preposition, with the word preceding it, in Lesson 168, into a sentence. Consult the dictionary freely and make as great a variety of sentences as possible. Make natural sentences.

Lesson 170.

Position of Phrases.

Notice how many meanings can be given to each of these sentences, and give the meaning really intended in each:

1. I met a woman in a carriage with a painted face. 2. We saw a dog chasing a cock out of the yard on three legs. 3. The village has forty houses and one hundred inhabitants of clay. 4. A man was seen by a child at work upon the suspension bridge.

Rule II.—Place the prepositional phrase where there can be no doubt as to what word it is to limit or modify. If for emphasis, or for any other good reason, a phrase is violently transposed, set it off by the comma. Independent phrases also should be set off by the comma.

Composition Exercise:

Fill the following blanks and give the reason for the commas used:

1. A beautiful valley lies —— the two mountains. 2. She rode —— Riverside —— Los Angeles. 3. Lincoln, —— the contrary, was a man of —— sagacity. 4. —— the beginning of the present year, the outlook is good —— California. 5. "Now there is —— Jerusalem, —— the sheep-market, a pool." 6. "Parting day dies —— a dolphin, which each pang imbues with a new color." 7. This report is different —— the one we heard —— the Post Office. 8. He was angry —— his father, and concluded to indulge himself —— a cigar to calm his spirits.

Lesson 171.

Choice and Position of Prepositions.

Exercise:

Correct the following sentences:

Model:

When we were to my son Henry's, we met the General.

This sentence is incorrect, because the preposition *to* is here used to express the relation of mere place, not direction, thus violating the rule: "Be careful to choose prepositions," etc. *To* properly shows *direction; at* shows place.

Corrected: When we were at my son Henry's, we met the General.

1. The dog sprang from the wharf in the water. 2. The cars arrived to Sacramento early in the morning. 3. I am angry with your behavior. 4. I am angry at you. 5. He entered in their plan heartily. 6. I had great need for friends. 7. His father died with the cholera. 8. Your actions are very different to hers. 9. She wished a boat ride, but was disappointed in it as no boat could be procured. 10. These trees differ greatly with each other. 11. He lives in the bend of the river. 12. What is the matter of your arm? 13. The conduct of Lear's daughter Cordelia threw him in a great rage. 14. She divided the property between her five children. 15. She lives at Chicago. 16. We went in the museum. 17. The farmer was averse from the settlement. 18. He stays to the store late. 19. The child has a strong resemblance of her mother. 20. That small man is talking with a big nose. 21. The boy was ridiculed for having been punished by his schoolmates.

Lesson 172.

Use and Omission of Prepositions.

Study carefully the following explanations:

1. Julia has given to me a beautiful flower.

The object of *has given* is *flower*, and the pronoun *me* is the object of the preposition *to;* but it is customary, for the sake of euphony, to omit *to, for,* and *of* when the phrase is introduced by a preposition showing direction, and when it is placed before the object. (See also Lesson 69.)

Say,

Julia has given me a beautiful flower;

Or,

Julia has given a beautiful flower to me.

In like manner correct these sentences:

1. Charley's father bought for him a new gun.
2. The examiners asked of the pupils many hard questions.

2. The chimpanzee often acts like unto a human being.

In this sentence *unto* is unnecessary, whether *like* is considered a preposition or an adverb; for, if a preposition, *like* connects its object, *being*, to *acts;* if an adverb, the *unto* is always understood, never expressed. (See Lesson 164.)

3. I have a pony of three years old.

Of is unnecessary, because the noun *years* is used adverbially to tell *how old*, and we have already learned (see Lesson 68) that nouns used adverbially do not need a connecting preposition.

Rule III.—Do not use prepositions when they are not necessary to give connection to the sentence.

Examine the following:

1. The insect was the length of a pin.

The expression *the length of a pin* is intended to describe a *quality* of the insect; but a noun used as the attribute shows the *identity* or *office* of the subject, hence the use of the noun *length* as the attribute of *insect* is incorrect. To express a *quality* of the subject, use a prepositional phrase; thus, *The insect was* **of** *the length of a pin.*

2. He is worthy your confidence.

Worthy is an adjective, and so can not connect the noun *confidence* to the rest of the sentence. (*Confidence* is not used adverbially, for it does not show the measure of worth.)

Corrected—*He is worthy* **of** *your confidence.*

Rule IV.—Do not omit prepositions except in those phrases sanctioned by good usage.

REMARK.—*There are certain idioms in which usage has long omitted the preposition, as after* **like** *and* **near**; *thus,*

He went home (*not*, He went *to* his home),

and other cases already mentioned.

Rule V.—Do not use the preposition *like* instead of *as*, or *as if*, to introduce a clause; thus,

He acts *as if* he were sick, *not* He acts *like* he was sick.

Note to Teacher.—This error is so gross and so common as to demand an earnest effort to eradicate it.

Lesson 173.

Application of the last three Rules.

Exercise:

Correct the following sentences:

1. Napoleon was banished Europe by the allied powers. 2. At Santa Cruz is a good place to get sea moss. 3. My uncle has bought for me a horse and a phaeton, and the horse is nearly like to my cousin's. 4. There is a tree at Felton of two hundred feet high. 5. Such actions are unworthy the name of good manners. 6. He handed to her a beautiful bouquet. 7. The board asked of me several hard questions. 8. Frederick left home for to make his fortune. 9. From hence he drove to Glasgow. 10. To what one are you going to give that medal to? 11. Nathan stood quite near to her when he fired the gun. 12. Wait a little while before trying of that plan. 13. It looks like it was going to rain. 14. That plum is the size of an egg. 15. His farm is the south side of the river. 16. I can't do it like she did. 17. We found him engaged in clearing of his farm. 18. It seems like I can never learn this lesson. 19. Where is your book at? 20. I did it like he did. 21. It seems like we must give it up entirely. 22. They saw him a trying to land at the point.

Note.—**A** *is a preposition in such constructions as* **a trying, a hunting,** *etc., but it is unnecessary in the last sentence, as the verbal* **trying** *is the attribute of the object* **him,** *and does not need a connecting word.*

Lesson 174.

Application of Rules for Prepositions.

Exercise:

Correct the following sentences (three are now correct):

[Direction: Change the first seven sentences, where necessary, but retain the position of the objective pronoun.]

1. I will give to her a book. 2. He will forward to you your parcel. 3. He purchased for me a horse. 4. I threw to the monkey an apple. 5. My friend has procured for me a situation. 6. I promised I would write her a letter every week. 7. You should have told him the truth.

[Direction: Transpose each of the above seven sentences, placing the objective pronoun after the object complement.]

8. This country abounds in swamps. 9. I will not confide on you. 10. We went on yesterday. 11. I sympathize heartily for you. 12. She sat near to the tree. 13. That crab-apple is the size of a large peach. 14. Mrs. B. has naturally quite a taste of art. 15. Such men are unworthy wives. 16. What use are such things to her? 17. He was exiled the state. 18. There is not much hope in attempting of it. 19. The Queen's message was received with a long preamble in dead silence. 20. We sailed into a little bay down the river along the coast.

CHAPTER VIII.

INTERJECTIONS.

Lesson 175.

Observe the italicized words in the following sentences:

1. *Hurrah, hurrah!* a single field hath turned the chance of war. 2. *Alack, alack!* 'tis wonder that thy life and wits had not concluded all. 3. *Ha!* who comes here? 4. *Bravo,* little one, *well done!* 5. *Ha, ha, ha!* who would have thought it? 6. *Ah me!* I am forlorn.

These words and many others like them are used to express strong or sudden emotion, and as they have no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence, they are called **exclamations** or **interjections.** They express (1) joy, (2) grief, (3) surprise, (4) approval, (5) merriment; and other emotions.

Rule I.—Interjections have no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence. They should generally be set off from it by the exclamation point.

REMARKS.—*Other parts of speech frequently become interjections when uttered with emotion. The frequent use of interjections indicates thoughtlessness, rather than feeling, and should be avoided.*

Rule II.—Use interjections adapted to the emotions expressed.

Rule III.—The word *O*, should always be a capital.

REMARK.—**O** *is used by many writers chiefly in direct address, and has no point between it and the noun; as,*

O mother, forgive me!

Oh *expresses sudden or strong pain, surprise, fear, etc.; as,*

Oh! oh! I am bitten!

Exercises:

Make the following correct in all respects:

1. Alas i am forsaken. 2. Oh for the balmy breath of spring. 3. Ah thou unlucky one. 4. Hark i hear their footsteps along the bank of the river. 5. Avaunt this way. 6. Heigh-ho i am delighted. 7. Out of the depths do I cry unto thee o Lord. 8. Ha ha I am undone.

Caution.—*Avoid the use of such expressions as,*

Goodness! Gracious me! My goodness! Mercy on us! Good heavens! etc.

CHAPTER IX.

VERBS AND VERBALS.

Lesson 176.

In Part I. you learned the following facts:

1. A verb asserts (states, asks, or commands).
2. A verbal is derived from a verb, but it differs in that it does not assert. It simply *assumes* what, as a verb, it would *assert.*
3. *Complete* verbs and verbals do not need anything besides themselves and their subjects to make good sense.
4. *Incomplete* verbs and verbals require either attribute or object complements to make good sense.

Review all that is said about verbs and verbals in Part I.

Examine the following sentences:

1. I *draw.* 2. I *drew.* 3. I am *drawing.* 4. I have *drawn.*

See which of the four forms below you can insert instead of the italicized part of the verb in 1; in 2; in 3; in 4:

First form.	*Second form.*	*Third form.*	*Fourth form.*
Do,	did,	doing,	done.
Go,	went,	going,	gone.
Talk,	talked,	talking,	talked.
Eat,	ate,	eating,	eaten.
Drive,	drove,	driving,	driven.

Notice which of the forms of *draw* already given is in each of the following:

Will *draw.* Can *draw.* Should *draw.* Had *drawn.* Has *drawn.* To *draw.* To have *drawn.* To be *drawing.* Having *drawn.* Having been *drawn.* Shall have been *drawn.* Can be *drawn.* To have been *drawn.* Could have been *drawn.*

Here are fourteen different verbs and verbals, and still more might be given, each of which makes use of one of the four principal forms of *draw* given at first.

These four forms are, therefore, called the **Principal Parts,** because from them all the other forms are derived.

Exercise:

See how many different forms you can make from the four Principal Parts of *do*, *go*, *talk*, *eat*, and *drive*.

The Principal Parts are called:

First, *present*, or *root*, form;
Second, or *past*, form;
Third, or *imperfect*, form;
Fourth, or *perfect*, form.

Note.—*The root form can always be obtained by dropping the suffix* **ing** *from the third form; as,* **draw+ing, go+ing, do+ing, eat+ing.**

Lesson 177.

Auxiliaries.

In the following expressions, notice which forms can be used entirely alone to assert, and which need some other word or words to help them in making the assertion:

They *draw.* They *drew.* They *will draw.* They *can draw.* They *are drawing.* They *were drawing.* They *can be drawing.* They *have drawn.* They *had drawn.* It *is drawn.* It *can be drawn.* We *shall be drawing.*

The words that accompany any of the principal parts to help assert, are called *helpers*, or *auxiliaries.*

Rules.

I. The first form may be used to assert either alone or with helpers; as,

I *go.* I *will go.* We *did go.* We *draw.* We *can draw.*

II. The second form should never be used with a helper.

III. The third form, when it asserts, must be used with some form of the verb *be.*

IV. The fourth form, when it asserts, is used only with some form of *have* or *be.*

Remarks.—*1. The third and fourth forms used without auxiliaries are verbals; as,*

The child **drawing** that picture is but six years old. The picture **drawn** by him is very fine.

2. The verbs commonly called auxiliaries are **may, can, must, shall, will, be, do,** *and* **have,** *with their variations. Each auxiliary will be discussed again in its proper place.*

3. **Do, be, have,** *and* **will** *may be used as principal verbs also;*

Do, *when it means to* **perform;** *as,*
We must **do** our duty;

Be, *when it means* **to exist** *or when it joins an attribute to its subject; as,*
I **am** glad that I **am;**

Have, *when it indicates* **to possess;** *as,*
We must **have** food;

Will, *when it means* **to resolve;** *as,*
We should **will** to do right.

Lesson 178.

Strong and Weak Verbs.

Verbs are classified, according to the way the *second* and the *fourth* forms are made, into *weak* (or *regular*) verbs and *strong* (or *irregular*) verbs.

The **strong verbs** are those that make the second and the fourth forms by changes within themselves; as, *draw, drew, drawn; go, went, gone.*

The **weak verbs** are those that add *d* or *ed* to make the second and the fourth forms; as, *walk, walked, walked; like, liked, liked.*

A few verbs have both the weak and the strong form; as, *awake, awoke* or *awaked.* The strong form is usually preferable.

Remarks.—*1. Verbs forming any of their principal parts in more than one way, are called* **redundant** *verbs; as, (1)* **hang,** *(2)* **hung** *or* **hanged,** *(3)* **hanging,** *(4)* **hung** *or* **hanged.** *(See list of strong verbs.)*

2. Verbs lacking any of the principal parts are called **defective** *verbs; as, (1) may, (2) might, (3) ——, (4) ——, (wanting.) (See list of strong verbs.)*

Lesson 179.

Direction.—Study the following list of strong verbs until you can readily give the four forms of any verb in the list, and can use each form in a good oral sentence. Practice until you can make these sentences rapidly.

[**To the Teacher.**—Drill upon the correct use of strong verbs is the most important part of the subject of verbs. Train the memory here in the rapid application of the different forms.]

List of strong (or irregular) verbs.

Present.	Past.	Imp. Part.	Perfect Part.
Abide,	abode,	abiding,	abode.
Awake,	awoke, *awaked*,	awaking,	awoke. *awaked.*
Be, *or* am,	was,	being,	been.
Bear, (*to carry*)	bore, *bare*,	bearing,	borne.
Bear, (*to bring forth*)	bore, *bare*,	bearing,	borne. born.
Beat,	beat,	beating,	beaten.
Begin,	began,	beginning,	begun.
Bend,	bent, *bended*,	bending,	bent. *bended.*
Bereave,	bereft, *bereaved*,	bereaving,	bereft. *bereaved.*
Beseech,	besought,	beseeching,	besought.
Bet,	bet, *betted*,	betting,	bet. *betted.*
Bid,	bade, bid,	bidding,	bidden, bid.
Bind,	bound,	binding,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	biting,	bitten, bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bleeding,	bled.
Blend,	blent, *blended*,	blending,	blent. *blended.*
Bless,	blest, *blessed*,	blessing,	blest. *blessed.*
Blow,	blew,	blowing,	blown.
Break,	broke,	breaking,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	breeding,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	bringing,	brought.
Build,	built, *builded*,	building,	built. *builded.*
Burn,	burnt, *burned*,	burning,	burnt. *burned.*
Burst,	burst,	bursting,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	buying,	bought.

Present.	Past.	Imp. Part.	Perfect Part.
Can,	could,	———	———
Cast,	cast,	casting,	cast.
Catch,	caught,	catching,	caught.
Chide,	chid,	chiding,	chidden. chid.
Choose,	chose,	choosing,	chosen.
Cleave, (*weak*) (*to adhere*)	*cleaved*,	cleaving,	*cleaved*.
Cleave, (*to split*)	clove, cleft,	cleaving,	cloven. cleft.
Cling,	clung,	clinging,	clung.
Clothe,	clad, *clothed*,	clothing,	clad. *clothed*.
(Be) Come,	came,	coming,	come.
Cost,	cost,	costing,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	creeping,	crept.
Crow,	crew, *crowed*,	crowing,	*crowed*.
Cut,	cut,	cutting,	cut.
Dare, (*intrans.*)	durst, *dared*,	daring,	*dared*.
Dare, (*trans.*)	*dared*,	daring,	*dared*.
Deal,	dealt,	dealing,	dealt.
Dig,	dug, *digged*,	digging,	dug. *digged*.
Do,	did,	doing,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawing,	drawn.
Dream,	dreamt, *dreamed*,	dreaming,	dreamt. *dreamed*.
Dress,	drest, *dressed*,	dressing,	drest. *dressed*.
Drink,	drank,	drinking,	drunk. drank.
Drive,	drove,	driving,	driven.
Dwell,	dwelt, *dwelled*,	dwelling,	dwelt. *dwelled*.
Eat,	ate,	eating,	eaten.
(Be) Fall,	fell,	falling,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	feeding,	fed.

Past T

Present.	Past.	Imp. Part.	Perfect Part.
Feel,	felt,	feeling,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fighting,	fought.
Find,	found,	finding,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fleeing,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flinging,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flying,	flown.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaking,	forsaken.
Forbear,	forbore,	forbearing,	forborne.
Freeze,	froze,	freezing,	frozen.
(For)Get,	Got,	getting,	got. / gotten.
Gild,	gilt, / *gilded*,	gilding,	gilt. / *gilded*.
Gird,	girt, / *girded*,	girding,	girt. / *girded*.
(For)Give,	gave,	giving,	given.
Go,	went,	going,	gone.
(En)Grave,	*graved*,	graving,	graven. / *graved*.
Grind,	ground,	grinding,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	growing,	grown.
Hang,	hung, / *hanged*,	hanging,	hung. / *hanged*.
Have, (*auxiliary*)	had,	having,	———
Have, (*to possess*)	had,	having,	had.
Hear,	heard,	hearing,	heard.
Heave,	hove, / *heaved*,	heaving,	*heaved*.
Hew,	*hewed*,	hewing,	hewn. / *hewed*.
Hide,	hid,	hiding,	hidden, hid.
Hit,	hit,	hitting,	hit.
(Be)Hold,	held,	holding,	held.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurting,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	keeping,	kept.
Kneel,	knelt, / *kneeled*,	kneeling,	knelt. / *kneeled*.
Knit,	knit, / *knitted*,	knitting,	knit. / *knitted*.

Note.—*Compare the forms and meaning of* **flee, fly, flow; got, have; hung** *and* **hanged.**

Present.	Past.	Imp. Part.	Perfect Part.
Know,	knew,	knowing,	known.
Lade, (*to load*)	laded,	lading,	laded.
Lay, (*to place*)	laid,	laying,	laid.
Lead,	led,	leading,	led.
Lean,	leant, *leaned,*	leaning,	leant. *leaned.*
Leap,	leapt, *leaped,*	leaping,	leapt. *leaped.*
Learn,	learnt, *learned*	learning,	learnt. *learned.*
Leave,	left,	leaving,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lending,	lent.
Let,	let,	letting,	let.
Lie, (*to recline*)	lay,	lying,	lain.
Light,	lit, *lighted,*	lighting,	lit. *lighted.*
Lose,	lost,	losing,	lost.
Make,	made,	making,	made.
May,	might,	———	———
Mean,	meant,	meaning,	meant.
Meet,	met,	meeting,	met.
Mow,	*mowed,*	mowing,	mown. *mowed.*
Must,	———	———	———
Ought,	———	———	———
Pass,	*passed,*	passing,	past. *passed.*
Pay,	paid,	paying,	paid.
Pen, (*to inclose*)	pent, *penned,*	penning,	pent. *penned.*
Put,	put,	putting,	put.
Quit,	quit, *quitted,*	quitting,	quit. *quitted.*
———	quoth, (*nearly obsolete*)	———	———
Rap,	*rapped,*	rapping,	*rapped.*
Read,	read,	reading,	read.
Rend,	rent, *rended.*	rending,	rent. *rended.*

Note.—*Compare* **lie, lay; lose, loose.**

Present.	Past.	Imp. Part.	Perfect Part.
Rid,	rid,	ridding,	rid.
Ride,	rode,	riding,	ridden.
Ring,	rang,	ringing,	rung.
(A)Rise, (*Intransitive*)	rose,	rising,	risen.
Rive,	*rived*,	riving,	riven. *rived.*
Run,	ran,	running,	run.
Saw,	*sawed*,	sawing,	sawn. *sawed.*
Say,	said,	saying,	said.
See,	saw,	seeing,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	seeking,	sought.
Seethe,	*seethed*,	seething,	sodden. *seethed.*
Sell,	sold,	selling,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sending,	sent.
*(Be) Set,	set,	setting,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaking,	shaken.
Shall,	should,	defective	———
Shape,	*shaped*,	*shaping*,	shapen. *shaped.*
Shave,	*shaved*,	shaving,	shaven. *shaved.*
Shear,	*sheared*,	shearing,	shorn. *sheared.*
Shed,	shed,	shedding,	shed.
Shine,	shone, *shined*,	shining,	shone. *shined.*
Shoe,	shod,	shoeing,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shooting,	shot.
Show,	*showed*,	showing,	shown. *showed.*
Shred,	shred,	shredding,	shred.
Shrink,	shrank,	shrinking,	shrunk. shrunken.
Shut,	shut,	shutting,	shut.

**Set* is properly transitive, meaning to place something, but it also means to pass across space; as, The moon *sets* (appears to set). He *set* out for town. The wind *set* in from the west. The tide *set* in, etc.

Present.	Past.	Imp. Part.	Perfect Part.
Sing,	sang,	singing,	sung.
Sink,	sank,	sinking,	sunk.
Sit, (*posture*)	sat,	sitting,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slaying,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	sleeping,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	sliding,	slidden. / slid.
Sling,	slung,	slinging,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slinking,	slunk.
Slit,	slit, / *slitted*,	slitting,	slit. / *slitted*.
Smell,	smelt, / *smelled*,	smelling,	smelt. / *smelled*.
Smite,	smote,	smiting,	smitten.
Sow,	*sowed*,	sowing,	sown. / *sowed*.
Speak,	spoke,	speaking,	spoken.
Speed,	sped,	speeding,	sped.
Spell,	spelt, / *spelled*,	spelling,	spelt. / *spelled*.
Spend,	spent,	spending,	spent.
Spill,	spilt, / *spilled*,	spilling,	spilt. / *spilled*.
Spin,	spun,	spinning,	spun.
Spit,	spit,	spitting,	spit.
Split,	split,	splitting,	split.
Spoil,	spoilt, / *spoiled*,	spoiling,	spoilt. / *spoiled*.
Spread,	spread,	spreading,	spread.
Spring,	sprang,	springing,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	standing,	stood.
Stave,	stove, / *staved*,	staving,	stove. / *staved*.
Stay,	staid, / *stayed*,	staying,	staid. / *stayed*.
Steal,	stole,	stealing,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	sticking,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stinging,	stung.
Stink,	stunk,	stinking,	stunk.

Note.—*Compare* **sow** *and* **sew.**

Present.	Past.	Imp. Part.	Perfect Part.
Stride,	strode,	striding,	stridden.
Strike,	struck,	striking,	struck. / stricken.
String,	strung,	stringing,	strung.
Strive,	strove,	striving,	striven.
Strow,	*strowed*,	strowing,	strown. / *strowed*.
Swear,	swore,	swearing,	sworn.
Sweat,	sweat, / *sweated*,	sweating,	sweat, / *sweated*.
Sweep,	swept,	sweeping,	swept.
Swell,	*swelled*,	swelling,	swollen. / *swelled*.
Swim,	swam,	swimming,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swinging,	swung.
Take,	took,	taking,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	teaching,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	tearing,	torn.
Tell,	told,	telling,	told.
Think,	thought,	thinking,	thought.
Thrive,	throve, / *thrived*,	thriving,	thriven. / *thrived*.
Throw,	threw,	throwing,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrusting,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	treading,	trod. / trodden.
Wake,	woke, / *waked*,	waking,	*waked*.
Wax,	*waxed*,	waxing,	waxen. / *waxed*.
Wear,	wore,	wearing,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	weaving,	woven.
Weep,	wept,	weeping,	wept.
Wet,	wet, / *wetted*,	wetting,	wet. / *wetted*.
Will,	would,	——	——
Win,	won,	winning,	won.
Wind,	wound,	winding,	wound.
Work,	wrought, / *worked*,	working,	wrought. / *worked*.

Note.—*Compare* **ring** *and* **wring**; **learn** *and* **teach.**

Present.	Past.	Imp. Part.	Perfect Part.
Wring,	wrung,	wringing,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	writing,	written.

Lesson 180.

IMPROPER USE OF WEAK AND STRONG VERBS.

Exercise:

Notice first the sense intended; then, the form or word chosen, and correct the sentence:

1. I have saw it. 2. I seen it. 3. I see it yesterday. 4. You done well. 5. Go and lay down, Fido. 6. Where did you lie your papers? 7. I set the porcelain bowl carefully away. 8. Where was he setting when you rang the bell? 9. Has the fire alarm bell rang? 10. She wrang her hands and moaned. 11. Father has came; now he will learn us how to do it. 12. My uncle has got himself a new carriage, and it has got two seats. 13. A hot north wind blowed all day. 14. The concert must have began before you come. 15. You should have came earlier. 16. We had ate a few cherries. 17. The creek having overflown its banks, we lay some boards down to walk on. 18. Tom throwed the ball too high. 19. Are the horses shoed? 20. Not a word was spoke. 21. His nurse was learning him to manage his tricycle. 22. Miss A. has teached her before. 23. The enemy became disheartened and flew. 24. The swallows have flew away. 25. The dog raised up and howled. 26. She knowed nothing about driving, and so she run the wheel against the gate-post. 27. The river is raising.

Composition Exercises:

a. Fill the blanks with the correct form of *sit*, *set*, or *seat*:

1. Did you ——— three in a seat? 2. The usher ——— me here. 3. Where were you ——— before? 4. We have ——— things in order. 5. He ——— out for town. 6. A strong wind ——— in from the west. 7. I ——— here last term. 8. They had ——— there an hour. 9. Where were they ———?

b. Fill the blanks with correct forms of *lie* (to recline) or *lay* (to place any thing):

1. The Romans used to ——— down to eat. 2. The lizard ——— in the sun. 3. ——— the guitar upon the piano. 4. Where did he ——— his head? 5. The skeleton had evidently ——— there a long time. 6. The dog was ——— on the porch. 7. Has the corner stone been ———? 8. They were ——— bricks for a new walk.

c. Write a short story about a lost child, and try to weave into the story all the forms of *sit*, *set*, *seat*, *lie*, and *lay*.

Lesson 181.

What Verbs Assert and What Verbals Assume.

The horse *eats* hay, *runs*, and *kicks*. (Action asserted)

The fish *darting* upward *caught* a fly. (Action assumed in *darting*, and asserted in *caught*)

As surely as I know that I *am*, I know that God *is*. (Existence *asserted*)

The horse *is* strong.
They *are* happy. } Relation *asserted*.

Being ill, the child could not accompany us.
We knew him *to be* ill. } Relation *assumed*.

From the above examples it will be seen that verbs may assert and verbals assume *action*, *being* (existence), or a *relation* between an attribute and the word to which the attribute belongs. By far the greater number, however, assert or assume *action*.

Remark.—*The actions asserted by verbs vary greatly in the amount of* **activity** *asserted; as*

He runs. He sits.

In the first the action is violent; in the second, hardly perceptible. Still, it is better to call all verbs in this sense, active, except the verb **to be** *in its various forms.* **To be,** *as it asserts merely existence, is commonly called a* **neuter** *verb. The verbs* **become, seems, appear,** *etc., are very closely allied to the verb* **to be,** *but differ enough to make it best to call them all* **active** *verbs.*

Mention ten different actions, five of which you can perform yourself.

If you perform the act of rising or of walking, and then the act of tearing or of breaking, you will notice a remarkable difference between them. You can not *tear* or *break* without having an object to be torn or broken, and the word naming this thing is the *object* of the verb. But when you *walk*, *rise*, or *look*, no object is required to complete the sense.

Here you see another classification of verbs—those *requiring an object* and those *which do not require an object.* The former are called **transitive** verbs; the latter **intransitive** verbs.

REMARKS.—*1.* **Transitive** *means* **passing over,** *and these verbs are so called because the action passes over to an object.*

2. Some intransitive verbs become transitive when followed by an object derived from the verb; as, He **ran** *a* **race.** *He* **lived** *a happy* **life.** *He* **sleeps** *the* **sleep** *of the just. This is sometimes called the cognate object.*

3. Other intransitive verbs become transitive in another sense. In the sentence, **He runs,** *the verb* **runs** *is intransitive, but in the sentence,* **He runs the engine, runs** *is transitive.*

4. The object is not always expressed; it may be understood. If a verb **may** *have an object, it is transitive. If it takes an object in* **any** *sense, however restricted, as in the examples above, it is in* **that sense** *a* **transitive** *verb.*

5. In the sentences **I walk, I look,** *you observe that the sense is complete, that is, no object is required. If I say* **I walk rapidly, I look carefully,** *an adverbial modifier is used, but not an object. In the sentence,* **He came an enemy and returned a friend, came** *and* **returned** *are intransitive, and they are each followed by an attribute used as identical with the subject. This construction is somewhat rare.*

Exercise:

Examine the following verbs and see how many and which of them may take objects, and are therefore *transitive* verbs:

Note.—*Do not mistake an adverb for an object; the former tells* **how, where, when,** *or* **why;** *the latter tells* **what.**

Bite, see, come, expect, sigh, go, hammer, fire, breathe, hope, look, wish, forsake, fence, walk, return, retire, subscribe, deliver, grow, bear, ring, cough, blow, rap, lean, have, creep, burst, abide.

Lesson 182.

Exercises:

a. Write sentences containing six examples of transitive verbs with the object of the action named.

b. Six transitive, but having the object understood, not expressed.

c. Six intransitive verbs expressing action.

d. Six that *may have* an object made from the verb.

e. Six that are usually intransitive, but may, in a certain sense, become transitive.

Lesson 183.

Forms of Verbs.

Both transitive and intransitive verbs may have more than one form.

Examine the verbs in the following:

(A)	(B)
I talk.	I am talking.
I have talked.	I have been talking.
I rise.	I am rising.
I rose.	I was rising.

The (A) form is called the *Simple* form; the (B) form is called the *Progressive* form, because it denotes that the act is in progress.

Observe that the progressive form consists of some form of *be* and the third form of the verb.

Change the following to the progressive form:

They cry. He went. You must write. I can ride. You might have thought.

Remark.—*To emphasize a verb having no auxiliaries, use* **do** *with the first form to express a present event, and* **did** *with the first form to express a past event; as,* **I write. I wrote.** *Emphasized:* **I do write. I did write.** *This is called the* **Emphatic** *form.* **Do** *and* **did** *are not used elsewhere, because all other verbs can be made emphatic by emphasizing an auxiliary already used.*

Formation of Transitive Verbs and Verbals.

Tell why the following words are transitive:

Sawed, kill, bit, cutting, seeing, to do, to eat.

Notice the difference in the following constructions:

(a) Men *kill* the lower animals.
(b) The lower animals *are killed* by men.

(a) A gnat *bit* his horse.
(b) His horse *was bitten* by a gnat.

(a) Every animal *eats* something.
(b) Something *is eaten* by every animal.

In each pair of sentences, (b) tells the same thing as (a). But when the actor is to be made prominent, the (a) form is used; and

when the recipient of the action is to be made prominent, the (b) form is used.

The (a) form is the *active form.*

The (b) form is the *passive form.*

Examine closely the above sentences, and notice in each whether the subject names the *actor* or the *recipient* of the action. Notice which is named by the object of the preposition *by* in the passive form. Compare the form of the italicized words in each pair.

REMARK.—*In the passive form, the prepositional phrase showing agency is frequently omitted; as,* The hotel was set on fire. [by somebody]

Conclusion: In changing from the active to the passive form, the *object* complement of the active becomes the *subject* of the passive, and the *subject* of the active, if retained, becomes the object of the preposition *by.* In this change the fourth form of the transitive verb is used after some form of the verb *be.*

Verbals may be changed in the same manner: in the active form the assumed subject names the *actor;* in the passive form it names the *recipient;* thus,

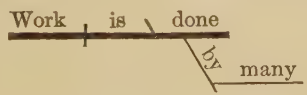
Active: The distracted parents, *having found* their child, took him home.

Passive: The child, *having been found* by his distracted parents, was taken home.

Active: The captain ordered the sailors *to lower* the mainsail.

Passive: The captain ordered the mainsail *to be lowered* by the sailors.

REMARK.—*Some grammarians reject the term "passive form," regarding it merely as a combination of the copula* be *and an attribute consisting of the fourth form of the verb; thus,*



Lesson 184.

Exercise:

Tell the form of each of the transitive verbs or verbals in the following, and change to the opposite form:

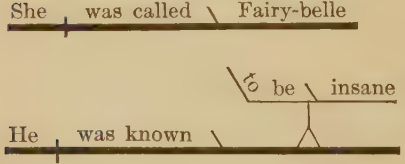
(Notice also the changes in form in the declinable pronouns.)

1. She draws pictures. 2. Having written a letter to his parents, in which he confessed his errors, his spirits rose. 3. A scandal-monger should be avoided by every one. 4. My task having been accomplished, I sat down to rest. 5. They were ashamed to be seen there by anybody. 6. My friend told me that the boy had been employed by her for a year. 7. Having returned the book to its place, I left the room. 8. Not a word was spoken by any one present. 9. Sam's mother, having been accompanied to the train by her son, left town well pleased with her visit. 10. I am determined to find help before evening.

When a transitive verb, in the active form, having an object complement and an attributive object, is changed to the passive form, the attribute of the object becomes the attribute complement relating to the subject; thus,

(a) They called her *Fairy-belle.*
(b) She was called *Fairy-belle.*
(a) They knew him to be *insane.*
(b) He was known to be *insane.*

Diagrams.



(The lines before the phrase and before *insane* slant toward the subject, to which each belongs.)

Lesson 185.

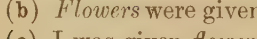
NOTES ON IDIOMATIC CONSTRUCTIONS.

I. (a) They gave me *flowers.* (The preposition **to** unexpressed)

(b) *Flowers* were given to me. [by them] (True passive)

(c) I was given *flowers.* (Idiomatic object)

Diagram.



(Place the idiomatic object in brackets; do not put a vertical line before it.)

This construction arises from taking the object of the preposition

to, in the active, for the subject of the passive, leaving, in the predicate of the passive, the true object complement of the active. This construction is condemned by some grammarians, but seems authorized by present usage, particularly to preserve euphony when the true object of the active form is long; as,

(a) They told him *that he would find his mother there.*
Awkward: (b) *That he would find his mother there* was told to him.
Better: (c) He was told *that he would find his mother there.* (Idiomatic object)

Exercise:

Change to the passive, using the italicized words for the subject, and diagram:

1. Webb asked *her* if she knew anything about the matter.
2. The directors informed *Mr. Ball* that his services were no longer needed.

II. Sometimes the object of a preposition (after the object complement) is taken for the subject in the passive, leaving the object complement and preposition as part of the idiom.

(a) They took *care* of **her.**
(b) *Care* was taken of **her.** (True passive)
(c) **She** *was taken* **care of.** (Idiomatic passive)

Diagram.

(Do not try to separate the parts of an idiom.)

III. Again, the object of a preposition after an intransitive verb is sometimes changed to the subject of an idiomatic passive; as,

(a) They laughed at *her.*
(b) *She* was laughed at. (Was ridiculed)

Exercises:

a. Change the following to the passive in the way that will make the most euphonious sentences:

1. People should not make fun of unfortunate children.
2. The neighbors often spoke of Harvey's bad habits.

b. Make two original sentences under each of the above three idiomatic constructions.

IV. When the fourth form of an *intransitive* verb is used after *is;* as, *Spring is come, It is flown,* the verb or verbal should be treated as an adjective. The meaning, of course, is, *Spring has come,* or *Spring is here ; It has flown,* or *It is away.*

V. All the idiomatic constructions may be given to verbals, as well as to verbs; thus,

Idiomatic object: The man having been given fair *warning.*
Idiomatic passive: This matter *having been spoken of* before.
Idiomatic passive: It was wrong for this matter *to be spoken of* then.
Idiomatic passive: The child *having been taken care of,* the doctor rode off.
Idiomatic use of verb *to be:* The bird *being* flown, we gave up the pursuit.

Lesson 186.

VERBS—MODIFICATIONS.

Tense.

Fill each blank with an appropriate *adverb* showing *when.*

1. —— she laughs. 2. She is laughing ——. 3. She laughed ——. 4. She was laughing ——. 5. I shall laugh ——. 6. She will laugh ——.

How could you tell what adverb to choose?

Now fill the following blanks with appropriate forms of the verb *go* or *attend:*

1. He —— now.
2. He —— school this term.
3. He —— yesterday.
4. He —— last term.
5. She —— soon.
6. She —— next term.

Thus you see that the form of the verb and the idea of time shown by the rest of the sentence must correspond.

This variation in the form of the verb to express the time of the being, action, or state, is called **Tense,** from *tempus=time.*

You notice here but three divisions of time, the past, the present, and the future; as,

I went. I go. I shall go.

Real present time is but a point, moving forward, converting future into past. The speaker may assume any length he pleases to the period called *the present*, provided it includes the real present; as,

To-day we *are* happy. This century *is* a period of great advancement.

We may say:

1. I *study* my lessons *now,—this term,—during this year.* (Present)
2. I *studied* my lessons *yesterday,*—or any time closing before the present. (Past)
3. I *shall study* my lessons *to-morrow,*—or any time in advance of the present. (Future)
4. I *have* (now) *studied* my lessons. (Present)
5. I *had* (yesterday) *studied* my lessons. (Past)
6. I *shall have* (to-morrow) *studied* my lessons. (Future)

In the last three, notice that the act is completed, or perfected, each time. In *4*, perfected in the present; in *5*, perfected in the past; in *6*, perfected in the future. These tenses are therefore called the perfect tenses, viz.: (4) *present perfect*, (5) *past perfect*, (6) *future perfect.*

Exercise:

With the pronoun *he*, use the following verbs in the six tenses:

Run, come, chose, shoot.

Lesson 187.

Modification of Verbs.

Manner of Asserting.

Notice how the assertions are made by the following groups of italicized words:

1. I *am talking*,
   Harry *talked*,
   They *have talked*,
   } Assert a fact.
   Though Harry *is talking*, he is not noisy. (Admits or concedes a supposition to be a fact)

Assert by means of the auxiliary:

2. Harry *may talk.* (Possibility or permission)
Harry *can talk.* (Power)
Harry *should talk.* (Duty)
Harry *must talk.* (Obligation or necessity)
Harry said, "I *will talk.*" (Determination or promise)

3. *If* it *be* possible, my father will come.
It is necessary that she *be* industrious. } (Future contingency or uncertainty)
It is important that you *be* attentive.
If he *were* more studious, he would be better. (A mere supposition implying the contrary)
I wish *that* I *were* more studious. I wish *that* he *were* more studious. (A mere wish implying the contrary)

4. *Go* at once. (Command)
Do let me. (Entreaty)
Be careful or you will fall. (Exhortation)
Come when you please. (Permission in the form of a command)

This difference in the *manner* of asserting is called **Mode,** from *modus, manner.*

(a) Verbs asserting a fact, as in Group 1, are in the *Indicative Mode.*

(b) Verbs asserting, by means of an auxiliary, possibility, permission, power, duty, obligation, necessity, determination, or promise, as in Group 2, are in the *Potential Mode.*

(c) Verbs in a subordinate clause, asserting a future contingency, a mere supposition, or a mere wish, without varying their form to agree with the subject, as in Group 3, are in the *Subjunctive Mode.*

(d) Verbs asserting a command, an entreaty, an exhortation, or a permission in the form of a command, as in Group 4, are in the *Imperative Mode.*

REMARK.—*Both the Indicative and Potential Modes may be used interrogatively.*

Exercise:

Make a definition of the Indicative Mode in accordance with the preceding explanations. Give six examples.

Lesson 188.

Modes and Tenses.

Indicative Mode.

[**To the Teacher.**—By turning to the tables of conjugation the pupil will find abundant examples from which to deduce the following principles.]

The *Indicative Mode* has six tenses, the time indicated corresponding more nearly to the name of the tense, than in any other mode.

There are three *time* tenses; *i. e.*, those that show merely the time of the being, action, or state, without regard to completion; and three *perfect* tenses; *i. e.*, those that show the completion of the being, action, or state at some definite point in the present, the past, or the future.

The simple *Present Indicative* expresses a present event, or that which is true at all times. It uses the root form of the verb, with changes to agree with the subject in the second and third persons singular; as,

I see,	Thou seest,	He sees;
We see,	You see,	They see.

The simple *Past Indicative* expresses a past event. It uses the second form of the verb, and changes only in the second person singular; as,

I saw,	Thou sawest,	He saw;
We saw,	You saw,	They saw.

The simplest *Future Indicative* is always compound. It expresses a future idea, and uses the root form of the verb preceded by the auxiliary *shall* in the first person, and *will* in the second and third persons; as,

I shall see,	Thou wilt see,	He will see;
We shall see,	You will see,	They will see.

Remarks.—*1. Future ideas are often expressed in an idiomatic Present Indicative; as,*

He **goes** to Europe next month, *meaning* He **will go.**

2. Past and future events are often expressed in the Present Indicative by the figure of Vision; as,

(*Past*) While Bruce **sits** lamenting his fate, he **sees** a spider patiently overcoming great obstacles.

3. The changes for person and number in all modes and tenses are made in the auxiliary, if there is one, and in the first auxiliary, if there is more than one.

The simplest *Present Perfect Indicative* expresses the event as completed in the present, previous to the moment of speaking. It uses the auxiliary *have* and the fourth form of the verb; as,

I **have seen** it frequently.

REMARKS.—*1. Here the speaker's whole past life is assumed as the present; the real present is the moment of speaking. The sentence means, I have seen it frequently in my life, previous to the moment of making this statement. We should not say, "I never did it yet," but, "I never have done it yet."*

2. Thus it will be seen that there are three classes of auxiliaries, viz.: (1) *Form* auxiliaries, as *do* in the emphatic and *be* in the progressive and passive; (2) *mode* auxiliaries, as *shall* and *will* when they denote determination, and *may*, *can*, and *must;* (3) *tense* auxiliaries, as *have* in the perfect tenses, and *shall* and *will* when they denote mere futurity.

The simplest *Past Perfect Indicative* shows the completion of the event at or previous to some point mentioned in past time; as,

Henry **had seen** the jewel before his mother sold it.

It uses *had* and the fourth form.

The simplest *Future Perfect Indicative* shows that an event is to be completed at or previous to some point of time mentioned in the future; as,

He **will have** seen his father before we meet again.

It uses *shall have* or *will have* (according to the person of the subject) with the fourth form.

Lesson 189.

Composition Exercise:

Use the verbs *come*, *go*, *drive*, *bite*, *lie* (to recline), and *sit* (position), in each of the tenses of the Indicative Mode.

Make smooth sentences and use an adverbial modifier (word, phrase, or clause) showing time in each.

Lesson 190.

Potential Mode.

Exercise:

Examine the explanation already given of the Potential Mode, and make a good definition of it, remembering that the *power*, *possibility*, etc., are always shown by the auxiliary.

By examining the tables of conjugation you will see that the Potential Mode has but four tenses: the *present*, the *past*, the *present perfect*, and the *past perfect*.

Present Tense.
- (a) *He* CAN SEE *now.*—(Present form with present idea)
- (b) *He* CAN SEE *next time.*—(Present form with future idea)

Past Tense.
- (c) *He never* COULD SEE *that.*—(Past form with past idea)
- (d) *He* COULD SEE *now, if he were here.*—(Past form with present idea)
- (e) *He* COULD SEE *it to-morrow, if he would go.*—(Past form with future idea)

Present Perfect. (f) *I* MAY HAVE SEEN *it often.*

Past Perfect. (g) *I* MIGHT HAVE SEEN *it sooner.*

Conclusion.—The tenses in the potential mode have the same names as the tenses in the indicative mode, but they may convey different ideas of time. They are named from the form of the *first* auxiliary used, and not from their meaning—future time being often shown by the present potential or the past potential. See (b) and (e) above.

Notice that the present tense uses the present potential auxiliary and the root form of the verb. See (a) and (b).

The past simply changes to the past potential auxiliary. See (c), (d), and (e).

The present perfect uses the present potential auxiliary, with *have* and the fourth form of the verb. See (f).

The past perfect uses the past potential auxiliary, with *have* and the fourth form of the verb. See (g).

Give the four tenses in the potential mode of *I can ride; He may see; He must go.* (Must has no past.)

Lesson 191.

Shall and Will.

[**To the Teacher.**—Perhaps in no other place in the English language are so many and so gross errors made as in the use of the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*. Below is a condensed view of their most important uses. Pupils should be given much drill here.]

1. Simple futurity or natural result. (Indicative)
   - (a) I think I *shall* recover.
   - (b) I think you *will* recover.
   - (c) I think he *will* recover.

2. Determination or compulsion. . . (Potential)
   - (d) I *will* write = I promise to write.
   - (e) You *shall* write = I compel you to write.
   - (f) He *shall* write =
     - I compel him to write.
     - Something compels him to write.

Rule I.—(Indicative Mode.) In general, use *shall* with the first person, (a), and *will* with the second or third, (b), (c), to denote mere futurity or natural result.

Rule II.—(Potential Mode.) Use *will* with the first person, (d), and *shall* with the second or third, (e), (f), to denote determination or compulsion on the part of the speaker or some external force.

Remark.—**Will,** *emphatic, may be used in all three persons of the potential mode to denote determination on the part of the subject: I* **will** *not take advice, You* **will** *not take advice, He* **will** *not take advice.* (*Potential Mode*)

Interrogatively.

3. (g) Shall I?=Is it likely? *or* Do you wish it?
   (h) Shall you?=Is it likely? *or* Do you intend?
   (i) Shall he?=Do you wish him?
   (j) Will you?=Do you promise? *or* Are you determined?
   (k) Will he?=Does he intend *or* promise?

Remark.—**Will I?** *is always incorrect.*

Rule III.—In questions containing *shall* or *will*, use the

auxiliary expected in the answer, except with the first person; there *always* use *shall.*

Thus: *Shall I?* Answer: *You shall.*
Shall he? Answer: *He shall.*
Will you? Answer: *I will.*

Lesson 192.

SHOULD AND WOULD.

(Always Potential Past.)

I. { I thought that I should do it.*
I thought that you would do it.
I thought that he would do it.

II. Duty. { We should be charitable.
You should be charitable.
He should be charitable.

III. Supposition. { If I should happen to try.
If you should happen to try.
If he should happen to try.

IV. Determination. { I said I would not do it.
I said you should not do it.
I said he should not do it.

Rule IV.—Use *should* like *shall*, and also to express a duty or a supposition in all three persons. Use *would* like *will.*

Lesson 193.

Composition Exercises:

a. Write two original sentences under each person, to illustrate Rules I. and II.

b. Under each illustration before Rule III.

c. Under each of the uses of *should.*

d. Under each of the uses of *would.*

Make oral illustrations of each of the above rapidly. Review this frequently.

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* **Note.**—This, although potential in form, is obviously indicative in idea. Emphasize *should* and the meaning is changed to *duty.*

Exercise:

a. Tell why the italicized words are correct:

1. I believe I *shall* not *live* long. 2. I *will sing* if possible. 3. *Will* you *assist* me? 4. *Shall* I *see* you at Mrs. Crocker's? 5. Mother, *shall* Warren *gather* the cherries now? 6. You *shall* not *play* with bad children if I *can prevent* it. 7. You *should* not *play* with bad children, for your parents *would* not *like* it. 8. His parents said he *should* not *play* with bad children, if they *could prevent* it. 9. He promised that he *would* not *play* with bad children. 10. His parents said they *would* not *let* him play with bad children. 11. *Shall* I *call* to see you to-morrow? 12. *Will* she *be* at home? 13. If I *should try, would* you *help* me? (Supposition) 14. If she *should try, should* I not *help* her? (Duty)

b. Fill the following blanks with *shall*, *will*, *should*, or *would:*

1. If he receives me kindly, I —— ever esteem him a friend. 2. If she were present, she —— be happy. 3. He told me he —— come if he could. 4. He tells me he —— come if he can. 5. We suppose it —— rain more in California. 6. I thought it likely I —— see you. 7. —— we take the next three pages? 8. —— you be sorry if I —— fail? 9. —— I take the next one? 10. —— you help me? Certainly I ——. 11. I —— drown, nobody —— help me!

Lesson 194.

Subjunctive Mode.

Examine again the illustrations at the introduction to Mode. Define the Subjunctive Mode.

Examining the conjugation on page 218, you will see that the peculiarity of the Subjunctive lies chiefly in its form. The future contingency is now frequently asserted by the idiomatic present Indicative, as,

If it **is** possible, my father will come.

Or by the Potential; as,

If it **should be** possible, my father will come.
It is necessary that she **should be** industrious.

The mere wish or the supposition contrary to the fact seem to be the only places where the Subjunctive form is still positively retained; as,

I wish I **were** studious. If he **were** studious.

The present Subjunctive uses the root form of the verb throughout:

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. That I be,	That we be,
2. That thou be,	That you be,
3. That he be;	That they be.

The past Subjunctive uses the past plural form throughout:

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I were,	If we were,
2. If thou were or wert,*	If you were,
3. If he were;	If they were.

REMARK.— *When the plural auxiliary* **have** *is used with a subject in the second or the third singular, the form is subjunctive; as, If he* **have gone.**

Lesson 195.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Define the Imperative Mode.

Since in this Mode the verb is always in the present, or root, form, it is said to be in the Present Tense, although the idea expressed may be either present or future; as,

Start now. (Present) **Start** to-morrow. (Future)

The subject is *thou* or *you*, generally understood, and it may be either singular or plural. The Imperative uses the root form of the verb in both numbers; as,

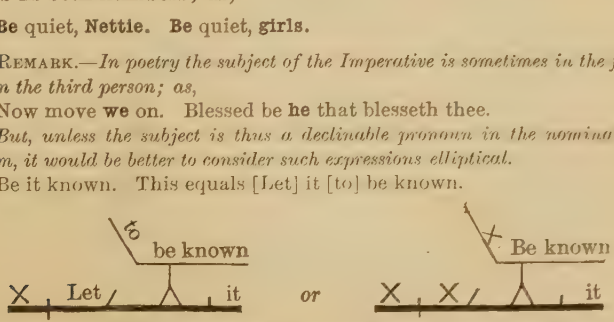
Be quiet, **Nettie. Be** quiet, **girls.**

REMARK.—*In poetry the subject of the Imperative is sometimes in the first or in the third person; as,*

Now move **we** on. Blessed be **he** that blesseth thee.

But, unless the subject is thus a declinable pronoun in the nominative form, it would be better to consider such expressions elliptical.

Be it known. This equals [Let] it [to] be known.



*Note.—Compare this with the Indicative, and notice that the verb varies slightly, forming an exception to the general rule for subjunctives.

Lesson 196.

Conjugation.

By the Conjugation of a verb is meant a systematic arrangement, in some given form (Simple, Progressive, or Passive), of all its modes, tenses, persons, numbers, and verbals. A Synopsis is the arrangement in but one person and number throughout all its modes and tenses.

[**To the Teacher.**—The common fault in conjugating is that of making the work a matter of mere memory, and not of understanding. Let the pupil compare this table with the preceding explanations, and conjugate intelligently. All through the conjugation the pupil should be led to observe closely the changes, indicating person or number, that take place in the root verb, or in any of the auxiliaries, noticing, in the auxiliaries, that all changes are restricted to the *first* auxiliary.]

Conjugation of "Do."—Simple Form.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

First.	*Second.*	*Third.*	*Fourth.*
Do.	Did.	Doing.	Done.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

(Uses first form.)

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I *do,*	We *do,*
2. Thou *doest,*	You *do,*
3. He *does;*	They *do.*

PAST TENSE.

(Uses second form.)

1. I *did,*	We *did,*
2. Thou *didst,*	You *did,*
3. He *did;*	They *did.*

FUTURE TENSE. Mere futurity or natural result.

(Uses first form after auxiliary.)

1. I *shall do,*	We *shall do,*
2. Thou *wilt do,*	You *will do,*
3. He *will do;*	They *will do.*

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

(Uses the tense auxiliary *have*, showing the *time*, and the fourth form, showing *completion.*)

1. I *have done,*	We *have done,*
2. Thou *hast done,*	You *have done,*
3. He *has done;*	They *have done.*

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

(Changes present *have* to past *had.*)

1. I *had done,*	We *had done,*
2. Thou *hadst done,*	You *had done,*
3. He *had done;*	They *had done.*

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE. Mere futurity or natural result.

(Time shown by auxiliary *shall* or *will.*)

1. I *shall have done,*	We *shall have done,*
2. Thou *wilt have done,*	You *will have done,*
3. He *will have done;*	They *will have done.*

Lesson 197.

POTENTIAL MODE.

(Here showing power; auxiliary, *can.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I *can do,*	We *can do,*
2. Thou *canst do,*	You *can do,*
3. He *can do;*	They *can do.*

PAST TENSE.

(Changes *can* to *could.*)

1. I *could do,*	We *could do,*
2. Thou *couldst do,*	You *could do,*
3. He *could do;*	They *could do.*

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

(Uses *can have* and fourth form.)

1. I *can have done,*	We *can have done,*
2. Thou *canst have done,*	You *can have done,*
3. He *can have done;*	They *can have done.*

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

(Changes present *can* to past *could.*)

1. I *could have done,*	We *could have done,*
2. Thou *couldst have done,*	You *could have done,*
3. He *could have done;*	They *could have done.*

Lesson 198.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

(No changes for person and number.)

PRESENT TENSE.

(Root form throughout.)

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. (If) I *do,*	(If) we *do,*
2. (If) thou *do,*	(If) you *do,*
3. (If) he *do;*	(If) they *do.*

Note.—*It is only in the second and third persons singular that the Subjunctive form differs from the Indicative.*

PAST TENSE.

(Second form throughout.)

1. (If) I *did,*	(If) we *did,*
2. (If) thou *did,*	(If) you *did,*
3. (If) he *did;*	(If) they *did.*

IMPERATIVE MODE.

(Root form in both numbers.)

Singular.	*Plural.*
Do (thou);	*Do* (you).

VERBALS.

INFINITIVES.

Present.	*Perfect.*
To do;	*To have done.*

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect.	*Perfect.*	*Compound Perfect.*
Doing.	(Lacking except in the passive.)	*Having done.*

CONJUGATION OF "DO"—EMPHATIC FORM.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

(Auxiliary *do* with first form.)

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I *do do,*	We *do do,*
2. Thou *dost do,**	You *do do,*
3. He *does do;**	They *do do.*

PAST TENSE.

1. I *did do,*	We *did do,*
2. Thou *didst do,*	You *did do,*
3. He *did do;*	They *did do.*

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. (If) I *do do,*	(If) we *do do,*
2. (If) thou *do do,*	(If) you *do do,*
3. (If) he *do do;*	(If) they *do do.*

PAST TENSE.

1. (If) I *did do,*	(If) we *did do,*
2. (If) thou *did do,*	(If) you *did do,*
3. (If) he *did do;*	(If) they *did do.*

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Do (thou) *do;*	*Do* (you) *do.*

Note.—*In the Potential Mode, use* **may, must,** *or* **will** *in place of* **can,** *and* **might, would,** *or* **should** *in place of* **could.**

Lesson 199.

CONJUGATION OF "BE."

Simple copula, Progressive form, Passive form.

DIRECTION.—For simple copula fill the blank at the right with an **attribute** of the subject; for Progressive form, with the **third form** of the verb; for the Passive, with the **fourth form** of a transitive verb. For the third person use one of the three singular pronouns, *he, she,* or *it.*

*Note.—Notice the difference between *doest* and *dost*, and between *doeth* and *doth*.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I *am* ——,	We *are* ——,
2. Thou *art* ——,	You *are* ——,
3. She *is* ——;	They *are* ——.

PAST TENSE.

1. I *was* ——,	We *were* ——,
2. Thou *wast* ——,	You *were* ——,
3. She *was* ——;	They *were* ——.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. I *shall be* ——,	We *shall be* ——,
2. Thou *wilt be* ——,	You *will be* ——,
3. She *will be* ——;	They *will be* ——.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I *have been* ——,	We *have been* ——,
2. Thou *hast been* ——,	You *have been* ——,
3. She *has been* ——;	They *have been* ——.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I *had been* ——,	We *had been* ——,
2. Thou *hadst been* ——,	You *had been* ——,
3. She *had been* ——;	They *had been* ——.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

1. I *shall have been* ——,	We *shall have been* ——,
2. Thou *wilt have been* ——,	You *will have been* ——,
3. She *will have been* ——;	They *will have been* ——.

POTENTIAL MODE. Showing possibility.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I *may be* ——,	We *may be* ——,
2. Thou *mayst be* ——,	You *may be* ——,
3. She *may be* ——;	They *may be* ——.

PAST TENSE.

(Change *may* to the past form.)

1. I *might be* ——,	We *might be* ——,
2. Thou *mightst be* ——,	You *might be* ——,
3. She *might be* ——;	They *might be* ——.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I *may have been* ——,	We *may have been* ——,
2. Thou *mayst have been* ——,	You *may have been* ——,
3. She *may have been* ——;	They *may have been* ——.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

(Change *may* to the past form.)

1. I *might have been* ——,	We *might have been* ——,
2. Thou *mightst have been* ——,	You *might have been* ——,
3. She *might have been* ——;	They *might have been* ——.

Lesson 200.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

(Root form.)

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. (Though *or* that) I *be* ——,	(Though *or* that) we *be* ——,
2. (Though *or* that) thou *be* ——,	(Though *or* that) you *be* ——,
3. (Though *or* that) she *be* ——;	(Though *or* that) they *be* ——.

PAST TENSE.

(Past plural form.)

1. (Though *or* that) I *were* ——;	(Though *or* that) we *were* ——,
2. (Though *or* that) thou *were* or *wert* ——,	(Though *or* that) you *were* ——,
3. (Though *or* that) she *were* ——;	(Though *or* that) they *were* ——.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Be (thou) ——;	*Be* (you) ——.

VERBALS.

INFINITIVES.

Present.	*Perfect.*
To be ——ing	*To have been* ——ing

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect.	*Perfect.*	*Compound Perfect.*
Being ——;	(Lacking, except in the passive.)	*Having been* ——.

Lesson 201.

Exercise:

Conjugate *think*, *try*, and *ride* in the progressive form, and *see*, *whip*, and *lay* (to place) in the passive form.

Lesson 202.

To give the *Synopsis* of a verb, arrange one person and number of each mode and tense in either of the above conjugations.

SYNOPSIS OF "SIT" IN THE THIRD, SINGULAR.

SIMPLE FORM.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Sit.	Sat.	Sitting.	Sat.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present, He *sits.*	Present Perfect, He *has sat.*
Past, He *sat.*	Past Perfect, He *had sat.*
Future, He *will sit.*	Future Perfect, He *will have sat.*

POTENTIAL MODE.

(Permission.)

Present, He *may sit.*	Present Perfect, He *may have sat.*
Past, He *might sit.*	Past Perfect, He *might have sat.*

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present, (If) he *sit.*	Past, (If) he *sat.*

IMPERATIVE MODE.
(Has no Third Person.)

Lesson 203.

Exercise:

Give a synopsis of *do* in the Progressive Form, First, Singular; of *write* in the Passive, Third, Plural; of *walk*, Emphatic; of *go*, *ring*, *come*, and *lie*, in the Simple and the

Progressive; of *seat, punish*, *drive*, and *tear*, in the Simple Active and then in the Passive. Take the person and number that will make the best sense.

Lesson 204.

Mode and Tense.

Exercise:

Give the mode and tense of the italicized words, and tell what in the form helps you to decide each:

1. Though it *is* summer, it *is* still cold. 2. *Were* he more industrious, he *would succeed*. 3. *Come*, if you *wish*. 4. *Let* us try. 5. We *have been recognized*. 6. Thou *hast* a shadow on thy brow, *art* thou a friend? 7. Columbus *thought* he *could reach* the East Indies by sailing westward. 8. We *will vote* in spite of opposition. 9. She *should* not *be allowed* to do that. 10. It is necessary that a student *be* systematic. 11. It is necessary that a student *should be* systematic. 12. It *is* evident that this student *is* systematic. 13. My advice to students is, "*Be* systematic in all you *do*." 14. If he *has done* wrong, he will confess it. (*Has done* admits a fact and agrees with *he*.) 15. If he *have done* wrong, he will confess it. (*Have done* does not agree with *he*.) 16. You *may try*, if you choose. 17. *Try*, if you choose. 18. You *might have done* it sooner. 19. Is it possible that I *can have made* that mistake frequently? 20. Is it possible that I *could have made* that mistake yesterday?

Lesson 205.

Rules and Cautions Derived from the Foregoing Illustrations.

I. Verbs in the Indicative and Potential Modes only, change to agree with the grammatical subject in person and number; as,

I *do*, Thou *doest*, He *does*.

Remarks.—*1. The second person singular in the solemn style is not used except in prayer or in solemn poetry. With these exceptions, it has become an idiom of our language to use the plural pronoun* **you** *with its plural verb, when the noun represented is singular; as,*

(Solemn style) **Thou art** the man. **Thou doest** well.
(Common style) **You are** the man. **You do** well.

2. From the above rule, it follows that errors in Number Forms are most likely to arise in the indicative verb. Remember that the third, singular indicative, except **be,** *adds* **s** *or* **es** *when its subject is singular; as,*

The horse trots, the kite flies.

3. The verb **be** *varies more frequently in form than any other. Learn its forms from the conjugation, page 220.*

4. **Need** *and* **dare** *are exceptions to the rule for agreement with the subject.*

He need not go, **He dare** not go,

are well authorized.

II. All the rules that apply to the agreement of pronouns with their antecedents, apply to the agreement of indicative verbs with their subjects.

Turn to Lessons 103, 104, and, in all the rules given, substitute the word *subject* for the word *antecedent*, and the word *verb* for the word *pronoun*. Read each rule, and notice the verbs in the sentences given as illustrations under each.

REMARK.—*When subjects connected by* **or** *require different forms of the verb, it is better to express the verb with each; as,*

He is to blame or else **I am.**

Lesson 206.

Exercise:

Tell why the Number Forms of the verbs in the following are correct. To find the grammatical subject, make a short analysis of each sentence:

1. That horse trots well. 2. Those horses trot well. 3. Richard, where were you at that time? 4. *Scissors* is always in the plural number. (The word *scissors*) 5. Longfellow's poems are celebrated the world over. 6. My copy of "Longfellow's Poems" was a gift. 7. Lord, thou hast been our dwelling place in all generations.

8. Thou, Lord of life, whose tender care
   Hath led us on till now.
9. O thou that rollest above,
   Round as the shield of my fathers!
   Whence are thy beams, O sun! plural subj.
   Thy everlasting light?

10. Three-fourths of her illness is imaginary. (One quantity) 11. Three-fourths of the diseases there are contagious. (A number of dis-

eases) 12. To love one's neighbor as one's self is often very difficult. 13. To promise and to do are two very different things. 14. That the whole is greater than any of its parts, is a self-evident truth. 15. This great scholar and statesman, Gladstone, is an indefatigable worker. 16. Neither the pastor nor his wife has returned yet. 17. The captain, as well as the crew, was lost. 18. Either you were there or your sister was. 19. Every man, woman, and child has been provided for. 20. The merchant, and not his clerks, was to blame. 21. Lord's "Beacon Lights" is a very interesting history. 22. Neither you are going nor I. (Better than *Neither you nor I am going.*) 23. Each box and each barrel is in its place. 24. I will rebuke him that is at fault. 25. I will rebuke you that are at fault. 26. The committee are divided in sentiment. 27. The church has nothing but moral power with which to punish offenders. 28. There is a herd of buffalo. 29. Art thou the man that came from Judah?

Lesson 207.

Exercise:

Fill the following blanks with verbs or auxiliaries in the appropriate person and number forms:

1. Thou —— my friend, else —— I not trust thee. 2. He —— my friend, else —— I not trust him. 3. You —— my friend, else —— he not trust you. 4. —— you there? 5. No one —— to be laughed at. 6. The messengers —— returned. 7. This pen —— given to me. 8. My watch —— stolen from me. 9. Both his sons —— run away. 10. Sixty days' interest —— now due. 11. The nation —— out of debt. 12. "Agreed," —— I; "no, no," —— he. 13. —— your mother or Miss Trench at home? 14. There —— the children. 15. Two thirds of her hair —— gray. 16. One half the infantry —— without shoes. 17. No trouble and no expense —— too great. 18. Thou bark that —— with man, haste, haste, to cleave the seas! 19. Proof, and not assertion, —— what —— required. 20. If the majority of the people —— otherwise, the town will not be improved. 21. To be slandered by the envious and persecuted by the wicked —— common trials of the good. 22. The attorney and notary next door —— a large business. 23. May, with her friends, —— always ready for a frolic. 24. The jury failed to agree, and —— dismissed. 25. A stage or a wagon —— meet every train. 26. Every leaf, every flower, and every blade of grass —— a wonder of creation. 27. Young's "Night Thoughts" —— a well-known poem. 28. There —— a school of fish. 29. Either Will —— made a mistake or I —— 30. —— thou he that —— save Israel? 31. All that —— present applauded. 32. Then Jerry —— "Where are you going?" and we —— "To town."

Lesson 208.

III. That which is true or false at all times should be expressed in the indicative present.

IV. A future contingency or a future uncertainty is best expressed in the subjunctive present; a mere supposition or a mere wish, in the subjunctive past; but a supposition admitted as a fact should be in the indicative mode.

Exercise:

Tell which of the above rules applies to each of the following sentences, and why some of the verbs do not agree with the subject:

1. The lecturer told the class that water is composed of oxygen and hydrogen. 2. He certainly will not learn to run unless he walk first. 3. If I were a millionaire, I would establish a hospital. 4. Victoria has not much power, although she is queen of England. 5. I told you before that I am eighteen to-day. 6. My father taught me that a true gentleman is always polite, and that no polite person ever smokes where it could be offensive to others. 7. Oh that I were able to help all mankind! 8. It is desirable that he be required to take an oath. 9. Were she as talented as she considers herself, she would obtain a position without difficulty. 10. Tell that child to be careful lest he fall. 11. Though Napoleon was so persevering, yet his life was a failure. 12. I told you once that the distance is one thousand miles, but I find I was mistaken. 13. I learned yesterday that the distance is one thousand miles. 14. Resolved: That the mayor be and is hereby requested to appoint a suitable committee to investigate this matter. 15. If my cousin was there, I did not see him.

Lesson 209.

V. In connecting words expressing time, the proper order and fitness of time should be observed. Verbs that depend upon each other must be put in corresponding tenses; as,

1. After I had left, he went away.

(Here the first action, that of leaving, was completed before the other, that of going, was begun.)

2. I say that I *will* go (that is), if I *be* able, or if I *can*.

3. I said that I *would* go (that is), if I *were* able, or if I *could*.

4. Such things *were* formerly quite common. (*Not had been*)
(*Formerly* shows mere past time, not completion.)
5. He starts for New York next week. (Idiomatic indicative present)
Better: He will start for New York next week.

Exercise:

Fill the following blanks with appropriate verbs of one or more words, according to the last three rules:

1. The army —— before the enemy came up. 2. If he might come, he —— behave better. 3. The holidays —— in three days. 4. Pompey is defeated and —— into Egypt. (Figure of Vision) 5. He let the glass fall and —— it. 6. We learned that diphtheria —— contagious. 7. The nurse said that one sign of fever —— thirst. 8. I wish I —— rich. 9. The carriages that —— in use in those days were clumsy vehicles. 10. Napoleon —— exiled once before he was sent to St. Helena. 11. If she —— made of iron, she might endure it all. 12. Our hero at twenty-five was pure and noble. He —— carefully trained by his mother in all manly virtues. 13. When we looked out again, the ship —— beneath the sea and nothing —— to be seen. 14. I —— Latin two years by the end of this term. 15. She has never done it yet, but she —— it soon.

Lesson 210.

ERRORS IN FORM, MODE, TENSE, PERSON, AND NUMBER.

Exercise:

Correct the following and apply the formula given under Nouns and Pronouns:

1. The house is building.

REMARK.—*This form is, perhaps, admissible, but as it seems to make the house the actor, not the receiver, it is better to say, The house is being built.*

2. If I was a man I would not sit idle. 3. Was you there when she sang? 4. She that was idle, now seemed transformed into a model of industry. 5. I did not do it yet. 6. I hope you got there in good season. 7. It is certain that he try hard. 8. It is necessary that he tries hard. 9. If you was I, what would you do? 10. Can I take your fan? 11. He don't like music. 12. I wish that she was more polite. 13. I hope he doesn't make that blunder again. 14. Should you marry against your parents' wishes, if you was he? 15. Either he or thou art troubled. 16. If she would do that accidentally, she would be very careless. 17. This article stated that cholera existed only where there

was filth. 18. I had company ever since last Friday, and haint got my lesson. 19. Neither Dick nor George like the city. 20. I am not acquainted with her long. 21. Four months' salary were received. 22. Where be you, Charlie? 23. If he was ill, he could not walk. 24. Though he be eighty, he is still hale and hearty. 25. Miss Lucy, can I speak to you for a moment?

Lesson 211.

More About Verbals.

You have already learned that a verbal is a word derived from a verb, but differing from it by assuming the action, being, etc., instead of asserting; that verbals are classified, like the verbs from which they are derived, into weak and strong, transitive and intransitive, active, passive, and neuter; that there are *two kinds* of verbals, viz., infinitives and participles; and you have seen that each may perform various offices, and that they differ from each other chiefly in form.

It now remains to discover their other variations and what rules control their use. In order to be prepared to understand these clearly, review what is said of verbals in Part I, Lesson 41, and remember what is said of verbals, in connection with verbs. Then write ten sentences, giving as many different uses of verbals as you can.

Uses of Infinitives.

Exercises:

a. Analyze each sentence and note the office of the infinitive:

Substantive in Office.

1. *To write* with a short pencil cramps the hand. 2. *To have written* better would have been impossible. 3. *To be seen* in such company is a disgrace. 4. *To have been seen* there then would have been dangerous. 5. He intended *to tell* you. 6. She hoped *to meet* you there. 7. It is difficult *to learn to paint.* 8. She ought *to be* truthful. 9. She ought *to have been* truthful before.

Adverbial in Office.

10. Sir Launfal went forth in his unscarred mail,
To search in all climes for the Holy Grail.

11. He looks honest enough *to be trusted.* 12. We were anxious *to do* it well.

Adjective in Office.

13. He is not a man *to desert* his friends. (Kind of man) 14. Is she a woman *to be honored?* 15. We saw the enemy *fall.* (*To* understood—Attribute of object) 16. The enemy were seen *to fall.* (Attribute of the subject)

Independent in Office.

17. *To tell* you the truth, Laura is a much better scholar than Frank. 18. *To put* it in the form of a proverb, One definition made by the pupil is worth a dozen learned.

Lesson 212.

b. Select the active, the passive, and the neuter infinitives in the above. Notice their forms. Compare *to write* in (1) with *to have written* in (2).

Lesson 213.

Conclusions:

1. Infinitives may be used substantively, adverbially, adjectively, or independently.

2. There are two tense forms, the *Present* and the *Perfect;* as,

To write,	*to have written;*
To be,	*to have been;*
To be seen,	*to have been seen.*

3. The present active and the neuter infinitives consist of the particle *to* and the root form of the verb; as, *to write, to be.*

4. The present passive infinitive consists of *to be* and the fourth form of a transitive verb; as, *to be seen, to be broken.*

5. The perfect active and the neuter infinitives consist of *to have* and the fourth form of a verb; as, *to have written, to have been.*

6. The perfect passive infinitive consists of *to have been* and the fourth form of a transitive verb; as, *to have been seen, to have been broken.*

REMARK.—*Infinitives, like verbs, may have a progressive form also; as,* **to be doing, to have been doing,** *etc.*

Lesson 214.

RULES FOR THE USE OF INFINITIVES.

Rule I.—The present infinitive, not the perfect, should be used after verbs or verbals expressing intention, desire, permission, hope, etc., to express an idea relatively present or future; thus,

He intended *to be* there, not *to have been* there.
I hoped you would permit us *to see* your present, not *to have seen.*

REMARK.—*We may say,* **He ought to be** *and* **He ought to have been,** *because* **ought** *has but one form.*

Rule II.—After the active verbs *bid, dare, hear, feel, let, make, need,* and *see,* and some of their equivalents, the particle *to* of the infinitive is omitted; as,

I made him *try.* I had him *bring* my book.

But after the passive form of these verbs and either form of other verbs, the *to* should be expressed; thus,

The boy was seen *to leave* the room. The beggar was bidden *to eat* his fill.

REMARK.—*The To Be of the passive infinitive is frequently omitted after* **make, feel, hear, and see;** *thus,*

I felt the house **shaken** by a severe earthquake. (To be shaken)

Rule III.—When two infinitives are joined in the same construction, without any intervening words, the particle *to* of the second infinitive may be omitted; as,

Try *to do* good and *avoid* evil.

Rule IV.—Do not use the particle *to* instead of the full infinitive, unless the word or words omitted can be supplied from the preceding verb or verbal.

Incorrect: I see you have not gone, but I heard you wished to [have gone].

Corrected: I see you have not gone, but I heard you wished to go.

Lesson 215.

Composition Exercises:

a. Write original sentences illustrating each point in the four preceding rules.

b. Fill each of the following blanks with one or more words illustrating the rules for infinitives, and give reasons for the words supplied:

1. I hoped —— you last week. 2. Bid the child —— in out of the cold. 3. He intended —— sooner than he ——. 4. Did you hear the woman —— when the gun was fired? 5. Children can be made —— the practical use of grammar. 6. A good teacher will make himself ——. 7. If you wish to understand your lessons and —— them intelligently, make yourself —— frequently with your eyes closed. 8. He has not sharpened the pencil, but he promised ——.

Lesson 216.

Uses and Forms of Participles.

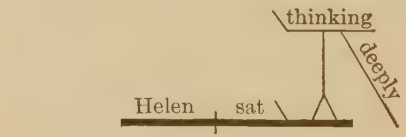
The word *participle* means that which *takes part*. A participle takes part in the nature of a verb and an adjective, or else in the nature of a verb and a noun. Sometimes the participle is used independently.

Exercise:

Analyze these sentences, noticing the offices of the participles and their variations in form. Notice which are active, which passive, and which neuter.

Adjective in Office.

1. That tall officer *waving* the flag yonder is a colonel. 2. We met two men *carrying* packs. 3. *Hearing* my name *spoken*, I paused to listen. 4. They found the water *frozen*. 5. Helen sat *thinking* deeply. (Attribute of the subject)



6. The city lay *sleeping*. 7. *Having repaired* the bridge, the troops passed over. 8. The bridge *having been repaired*, the troops passed over. 9. The house *being built* there belongs to Mr. Spencer.

Substantive in Office.

10. The crew attracted attention by *waving* the flag. 11. He was accused of *being* unjust. 12. Your *having* made this slight mistake need not discourage you.

Independent in Office.

13. *Considering* the difficulties, you have succeeded very well. 14. *Speaking* of crystals, have you seen the large one that we found yesterday? 15. *Calculating* roughly, it will cost five dollars. 16. *Estimating* it in centals, how large a crop of wheat shall you have?

REMARK.—*A participle may become a real adjective; as,*
The **buzzing** insect woke me;
A real noun; as,
The **buzzing** of the bees awoke me;
Or an adverb of degree; as,
The water is **boiling** hot.

Lesson 217.

Conclusions:

1. Participles may be used adjectively, substantively, or independently.

2. Participles have three forms, or tenses—the *Imperfect*, the *Perfect*, and the *Compound Perfect*, or *Preperfect*. Examples: *Writing*, *written*, *having written*.

3. The imperfect participle expresses an event as incom-

plete at the time shown by the rest of the sentence. (See sentences 1 and 2, last lesson.)

4. The perfect participle expresses an event as completed at the time shown by the rest of the sentence. (See sentence 4.)

5. The compound perfect participle expresses the completion of an event previous to the time shown by the rest of the sentence. (See sentences 7 and 8.)

Imperfect—
- Active, *Writing, building, seeing.*
- Neuter, *Being.*
- Passive, *Being written, being built, being seen.*

Perfect—Passive, *Written, built, seen.*

Compound Perfect—
- Active, *Having written, having built.*
- Neuter, *Having been.*
- Passive, *Having been written, having been built.*

6. The imperfect active or neuter participle is the third form of the verb and is always simple.

7. The imperfect passive participle consists of *being* and the fourth form of a transitive verb.

8. The perfect participle is always passive and always simple. It is the fourth form of a transitive verb.

9. The compound perfect participle, active or neuter, consists of ————————————————.

10. The compound perfect passive participle consists of ————————————————.

[**To the Teacher.**—Let the pupil fill the blanks in 9 and 10, after he has examined the preceding table.]

Lesson 218.

Composition Exercise:

Compose or select sentences illustrating each kind of participle and the different offices of participles, as shown in the preceding work, observing the following rules:

Rules for the Use of Participles.

Rule I.—When a participial phrase is independent or is

used as an adjective adjunct, but is not restrictive, set it off by the comma: as, The children, *gathering around the old man*, asked for a story. (Adjective Adjunct)

REMARK.—*Such a phrase is equal to a non-restrictive clause, i. e.: The children,* **who gathered around the old man,** *asked for a story. In the sentence, I mean the officer* **waving the flag there,** *the phrase is restrictive, equaling the clause,* **that is waving the flag,** *and showing the specific individual; therefore it is not set off by the comma.*

Rule II.—When a participle is not independent, see that it relates clearly to the true subject of the being, action, or state of being.

Ambiguous: *I* saw a bunch of beautiful pinks, *passing* by a shop window.

Transposed: *Passing* by a shop window, *I* saw a bunch of beautiful pinks.

REMARK.—*It is more euphonious also, as well as clearer, to place the participial phrase before the subject, particularly if the latter is a pronoun.*

Rule III.—Wherever the use of the participle produces awkwardness, ambiguity, or obscurity, use in its place a common noun, an infinitive, a clause, or some other equivalent.

One's utterly **neglecting** his own children is sinful.
Substitute a noun:
An utter **neglect** *of one's own children is sinful*;
Or an infinitive:
To neglect *one's own children utterly is sinful.*

Do you remember his sister's **shooting** several ducks?
Change to a clause:
Do you remember **that his sister shot** *several ducks?*

Rule IV.—When a transitive verb or participle is fully changed into a verbal adjective, a preposition is needed to govern that which was before the object of the verb or participle; as,

That child's face *is interesting* me. (Progressive form, present tense)
That child's face is very *interesting* to me. (Verbal adjective, no particular time, preposition inserted)

Rule V.—When a verbal noun is derived from a transitive participle, insert the preposition *of* to govern that which was before the object of the participle; as,

This *governing of* ourselves is an essential part of self-culture.

Lesson 219.

Exercise:

Correct the following by the first three rules:

1. I mean the woman, carrying that baby. 2. Being conscious of his state, death seemed very near. 3. Sacrificing herself to her children is a mother's nature. 4. Edith overwhelmed by a great breaker, sank out of sight. 5. Walking in the Park may be seen a large century plant. 6. It is careless sitting on the edge of a precipice. 7. I remember Susie's sitting there once. 8. By requiring the children to express themselves in writing frequently, they become accustomed to composition. 9. Suffering needlessly is never a duty. 10. Piety is earnestly desiring to do God's will, not our own. 11. Analysis is separating a sentence into its parts. 12. He intends going in a few days.

Correct the following by the last two rules:

13. Synthesis is the building sentences. 14. That game is very amusing me. 15. Have you any instructions for the raising that money? 16. That book is quite entertaining him.

Lesson 220.

PARSING VERBALS.

MODELS:

(a) **Sir Thomas More refused TO TAKE the oath.**

To take is a present, active, transitive infinitive, from *take, took, taking, taken.*

Conjugated: { Present, *to take.* / Perfect, *to have taken.*

Used substantively as the object of *refused.*

Rule.—Infinitives may be used substantively, adverbially, adjectively, or independently.

(b) **HAVING BEEN FORSAKEN by all her friends, she died in poverty and obscurity.**

Having been forsaken is a compound perfect passive participle, from *forsake, forsook, forsaking, forsaken.*

Conjugated: { Imperfect, *being forsaken.*
Perfect, *forsaken.*
Compound Perfect, *having been forsaken.*

Used as an adjective adjunct of *she.*

Rule.—Participles may be used adjectively, substantively, or independently.

Exercise:

a. Parse the verbals in the following sentences according to the above models:

1. They began to be frightened at the thunder. 2. She turned to see who had spoken. 3. Having caught the thief, he hoped to be able to prove his guilt. 4. He died loved by all. 5. There being many poisonous plants in the vicinity, the children were told not to play with any plants.

b. Parse all the verbals in the examples of { Infinitives (Lesson 211). Participles (Lesson 216).

CHAPTER X.

Lesson 221.

SELECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS.

As Cæsar loved me, I weep for him; as he was fortunate, I rejoice at it; as he was valiant, I honor him; but as he was ambitious, I slew him. There are tears for his love; joy, for his fortune; honor, for his valor; and death, for his ambition! Who is here so base that would be a bondman? If any, speak, for him have I offended. Who is here so rude that would not be a Roman? If any, speak, for him have I offended. Who is here so vile that will not love his country? If any, speak, for him have I offended. I pause for a reply.—*Shakespeare.*

The person by whose advice William appears to have been at this time chiefly guided as to Scotch politics, was a Scotchman of great abilities and attainments, Sir James Dalrymple of Stair, the founder of a family eminently distinguished at the bar, on the bench, in the senate, in diplomacy, in arms, and in letters, but distinguished also by misfortunes and misdeeds which have furnished poets and novelists with materials for the darkest and most heart-rending tales.—*Macaulay.*

Lesson 222.

SELECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS.

A nightingale, that all day long
Had cheered the village with his song,
Nor yet at eve his note suspended,
Nor yet when eventide was ended,
Began to feel, as well he might,
The keen demands of appetite;
When, looking eagerly around,
He spied far off, upon the ground,
A something shining in the dark,
And knew the glow-worm by his spark;
So, stooping down from hawthorn top,
He thought to put him in his crop.
The worm, aware of his intent,
Harangued him thus, right eloquent:

"Did you admire my lamp," quoth he,
"As much as I your minstrelsy,
You would abhor to do me wrong,
As much as I to spoil your song:
For 'twas the self-same Power divine
Taught you to sing, and me to shine:
That you with music, I with light,
Might beautify and cheer the night."

—*Cowper.*

Lesson 223.

SELECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS.

We are the mariners, and God the Sea,
And though we make false reckonings, and run
Wide of a righteous course, and are undone,
Out of His deeps of love, we cannot be.

For by those heavy strokes we misname ill,
Through the fierce fire of sin, through tempering doubt,
Our natures more and more are beaten out
To perfecter reflections of His will!

—*Alice Carey.*

It may be true that the men of good systems are worse than their principles, and the men of bad systems better than their principles: but, speaking of systems, and not of men, I am convinced that the time has come when religion itself requires a vigorous protest against this kind of religionism.—*Hon. W. E. Gladstone.*

Lesson 224.

SELECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS.

Peace to the just man's memory: let it grow
Greener with years, and blossom through the flight
Of ages: let the mimic canvas show
His calm, benevolent features: let the light
Stream on his deeds of love, that shunned the sight
Of all but heaven, and in the book of fame
The glorious record of his virtues write
And hold it up to men, and bid them claim
A palm like his, and catch the hallowed flame.

—*W. C. Bryant.*

Whether the prisoner through the grate
Watches the waving of the grass with small,
Which having counted he sits i' the wall,
Takes its free risk of good or evil fate,
And from the sky's just blessed draws in hot
Daily of shower or sunshine, cold or hot;
Whether the closer captive of a creed,
Cooped up from birth to guard our endless stuff,
Sees through his breadthless bars the doorway bright,
And feels in vain his cramped powers breed;
Whether the Georgian wave look up and mark,
With sullying sails puffed full, the tall cloud-bark
Sink northward slowly,—thou alone seem'st good,
Fair only thou, O Freedom, whose desire
Can light in muddiest souls quick seeds of fire
And strain life's chords to the old heroic mood.

—*James R. Lowell.*

Lesson 225.

SELECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS.

As some poor wretch confined

In cells loud with meaningless laughter, whose mind
Wanders trackless amidst its own ruins, may hear
A voice heard long since, silenced many a year,
And now, 'mid mad ravings recapt'red again,
singing through the caged lattice a once well-known strain,
Which brings back his boyhood upon it, until
The mind's ruin'd crevices graciously fill
With music and memory, and, as it were,
The long-troubled spirit grows slowly aware
Of the mockery round it, and shrinks from each thing
It once sought,—the poor idiot who pass'd for a king,
Hard by, with his aguard straw crown, now confess'd
A madman more painfully mad than the rest,—
So the sound of her voice, as it there wander'd o'er
His echoing heart, seem'd in part to restore
The forces of thought: he recapt'red the whole
Of his life by the light, which, in passing, her soul
Reflected on his: he appeared to awake
From a dream, and perceived he had dream'd a mistake:

His spirit was softened, yet troubled in him:
He felt his lips falter, his eyesight grow dim.

—*Owen Meredith (Lucile).*

Lesson 226.

Selections for Analysis.

Yet sets she not her soul so steadily
Above, that she forgets her ties to earth,
But her whole thought would almost seem to be
How to make glad one lowly human hearth;
For with a gentle courage she doth strive
In thought and word and feeling so to live
As to make earth next heaven; and her heart
Herein doth show its most exceeding worth,
That, bearing in our frailty her just part,
She hath not shrunk from evils of this life,
But hath gone calmly forth into the strife,
And all its sins and sorrows hath withstood
With lofty strength of patient womanhood:
For this I love her great soul more than all,
That, being bound, like us, with earthly thrall,
She walks so brightly and heaven-like therein,—
Too wise, too meek, too womanly, to sin.

—*James R. Lowell.*

CHAPTER XI.

Miscellaneous Errors in Syntax.

[**To the Teacher.**—The fact is fully recognized, that, in presenting errors of any kind, there is danger of teaching or propagating the errors, rather than of correcting them. It is believed, however, that an error presented *as an error* will be avoided rather than adopted. With most of the expressions here presented, the child is already familiar through the ear, but he may not recognize them as *errors*. Indeed, many of them are often incorporated in his own language. This being true, there is little danger of teaching incorrect language by the study of *common* errors in syntax. On the contrary, the constant examination and criticism of such errors must assist in eradicating them from the language of the pupil. The exercises given below, taken largely from the language of pupils in the higher grades of the public schools, are given for this careful examination and criticism. In order to emphasize the errors *as errors*, the incorrect portions of each sentence are italicized. The pupil should be able to specify clearly what the error is, and, if required, to apply the proper rule or caution. He should also be encouraged to observe closely his own language and the language of others, noting erroneous expressions, until, in the end, his ear detects an error in language as readily as a trained ear detects a false note in a familiar tune.]

Lesson 227.

[**To the Teacher.**—In this lesson an effort is made to collect, for constant observation, the most common errors found in the language of the pupils in our schools, especially the graver errors, those that show a great lack of discernment and culture. Most of these have been noticed in former lessons, but are repeated here to emphasize them. The pupil should be so continuously drilled upon the corrections of these errors that they never escape his notice, in his own language or in the language of others. The list might be greatly lengthened, but it is hoped that teachers will themselves be on the alert to detect the vagrants in our language and to do all in their power to drive them out. First, though perhaps not strictly belonging here, are

Some School-Words Commonly Mispronounced.

Incorrect.	*Correct.*	*Incorrect.*	*Correct.*
dee'strict	dīs'trict	*becŭz*	because
rē'cess	recess'	*kĕtch*	cătch
masculīne	masculine	*kĭn*	căn
nomitive or *nomnative*	nominative	*gĭt*	gĕt

Incorrect.	*Correct.*	*Incorrect.*	*Correct.*
artic	arctic	*fûr*	fûr
antartic	antarctic	*Toosday*	Tūesday
are'a	a'rea	*Febūary*	February
construe'	con'strue	*noos*	news
misconstrue'	miscon'strue	*drownded*	drowned
'leven	eleven	*kep*	kept
jography	geography	*ben*	been

Errors in Grammatical Forms.

[Most of the errors given below, however gross they may seem, are to be found in the language of a large majority of the pupils, and not a few of the teachers, in our public schools.]

1. I *done* it, **for** I *did* it. 2. I *done* it *like* he did, **for** I *did* it *as* he did. 3. I *seen* him, **for** I *saw* him. 4. I hain't *saw* him to-day, **for** I haven't *seen* him to-day. 5. We *have went clean* through the book, **for** we *have gone entirely* through the book.

General Caution.—Use *done*, *gone*, and *seen* only with some form of the helping verbs *have* or *be;* as,

It *is* done; it *was* done; it will *be* done; he *has* done his work; they *had* done well.

When there is no helping verb, use *did*, *saw*, and *went;* as,

I did; he saw; we went; etc.

Allied to these errors, and almost as common, are the following:

Come *for* **came**; as, I *come* to school this morning **for** I *came*, etc. **Run** *for* **ran, begun** *for* **began, sung** *for* **sang, rung** *for* **rang.**

Apply caution as above.

With helping verbs use *come*, *run*, *begun*, *sung*, *rung*, etc., to express past time.

Without helping verbs use *came*, *ran*, *began*, *sang*, *rang*, etc., to express past time.

The very common verbs *sit* and *set*, and also the verbs *lie* and *lay* are constantly misused; as,

May I *set* here? **for** May I *sit* here? It *laid* there all night, **for** It *lay* there all night. It has *laid* there an hour, **for** It has *lain* there an hour.

These errors can best be eradicated by fixing in the mind

the *meaning* of each verb. To *lie* is to recline, to *lay* is to place.

He *has* **lain** *there*, means he has reclined there. He *has* **laid** [something] *there*, means he has *placed* something there.

Sit means to assume or retain a certain position.

Set means to place.

To **set** *there* means to place something, as a chair, or stool, there.

This verb, however, has many different significations; as, *the sun set*, *the garment sets*, etc. It can be mastered only by a careful study, from the dictionary, of its various uses, and a constant watchfulness to discriminate between it and the verb *sit*.

[The ingenuity of the teacher should here suggest a multitude of sentences in which the pupil is to use the verbs *lie* and *lay*, and *sit* and *set*, until the correct use becomes a habit.]

The use of *like* for *as*, or of *like* for *as if*, is a very common error in many localities; as,

Do it *like* I do, **for** Do it *as* I do. It seems *like* it will never stop raining, **for** It seems *as if* (or as though) it will, etc.

These errors are, to the cultivated ear, very obvious, and grate harshly.

It should be fixed in mind that *like* may be a *preposition* or an *adverb*, but *never* a *conjunction*. *He acts* **like** (*prep.*) *his brother*, is correct. *He acts* **like** (*conj.*) *his brother acts*, is incorrect.

The use of *will* and *would* in the first person to express simple futurity is also very common; as,

Will we take the next lesson? **for** *Shall* we take the next lesson? I fear we *will* have to do it, **for** I fear we *shall* have to do it.

DIRECTION.—Use *will* and *would* in the first person when it is a matter determined by your own will. But to say, I think we *will* have rain, when the will of the speaker has nothing to do with it, is absurd.

We *promise* or *resolve* with *will*, but foretell or conjecture with *shall*.

The use of the verb *get* (form *got*), after *have* or *have not*, is also common; as,

I have *got* my lesson, **for** I *have* my lesson; He has *got* mumps, **for** He *has* mumps.

When mere *possession* is sought to be expressed by *have got*, omit *got*, as the idea is fully and better expressed by the verb *have*. *Got* should be used only where *obtained* can be used in its place. *I have* **got** *to go home*, is not nearly so elegant as *I* **have** *to go home*, or *I must go home.*

The verb *can* in an interrogative sentence is almost invariably misused in place of *may;* as,

Can I leave the room? **instead of** *May* I leave the room?

Use *may* to ask or assert *permission; can* to ask or to assert *ability* or *power.*

Bad and *badly* are commonly interchanged; as,

I feel *badly*, **for** I feel *bad;* He looks *badly*, **for** He looks *bad;* He acts *bad*, **for** He acts *badly.*

Use *bad* (adj.) to describe a person or an object; *badly* (adv.) to describe the manner of performing an action.

[This list might be lengthened indefinitely, and the observant teacher will not fail to collect, in any locality, the errors of speech there prevalent, putting his own habitual errors at the head, and then, with a continuous effort try to eradicate them from his own language as well as from the language of his pupils. To teach and to train the young to use pure English is among the highest educational duties.]

Lesson 228.

Errors in the Use of Nouns and Pronouns.

1. *Who* have they at their place for pastor now? 2. I saw some one *who* I took to be *she.* 3. *Who* is that book written by? 4. *Whomever* tries with his whole soul will succeed. 5. *Whoever* Miss B. has promoted will be thorough. 6. The boys hurt *theirselves* running too fast. 7. This is the book *what* you asked for. 8. I know that was *me.* 9. They will walk behind you and *I.* 10. I knew it was *her.* 11. *Whom* were they? 12. He took Walter and *I* out for a ride. 13. *Them* are nice apples. 14. It was *me.* 15. Give me the books, *them* on the desk. 16. *Who* did she go with? 17. *Us* girls will go. 18. *Her* and I saw them. 19. My apple is hard. Is *yourn?* 20. He said you and *me* could go. 21. May Jennie go with Mary and *I?* 22. Some one has lost *their* ribbon.

Errors in the Use of Adjectives.

1. *Those* class of people are always the same. 2. It is *awful* good. 3. *Them* are sailors. 4. She gave us an *awful* little bit. 5. The right and left hand are not equally useful. 6. We had a *lovely* time. 7. It was *that* long. 8. I brought *them* roses. 9. I did n't know it was *that* late. 10. This is my most *often* mistake. 11. She is a *small little* woman. 12. The horse and the buggy that I *drive is* new. 13. The *two first* girls did not keep step. 14. This house is *commodious and new*. 15. You make *less* mistakes than I make.

Lesson 229.

Errors in the Use of Adverbs.

1. I feel *finely* this morning. 2. He came *back here again*. 3. She *did n't* give us *no* abstract. 4. It is *not* wrong I *do* wt think. 5. Does n't she sing *sweet*? 6. I never did so *poor* in an examination before. 7. That *ain't nothing nohow*. 8. *Most* every one goes there. 9. I *can't* do nothing. 10. I *did n't* say *no such a thing*. 11. Sing it *over again*. 12. I do not understand it *quite*. 13. I *only* have two or three. 14. I am *not* going to put down *none*. 15. Herman feels very *badly* about his mistake. 16. I do n't make any besides *these here*. 17. It *won't* do *no* good to fret. 18. I *can't* find *nothing*. 19. Hand it *out here*. 20. It is *most* too far. 21. *Most* everybody went. 22. He tried *to quickly rectify* the mistake. 23. It is so *horribly* cold. 24. I *only* brought a dime. 25. I used *to always think* that that was correct. 26. Do you know where that *there* book of designs is? 27. It sounds *queerly*. 28. He *reviewed up* before school began. 29. Do n't you wish you could write as *nice* as that? 30. I did n't teach *good* at all. 31. Redundancy is *where* too many words are used. 32. Homicide is *when* a man takes another's life without just provocation. 33. Teach him to do his work *good*. 34. I get tired of hearing people constantly complain *sometimes*. 35. That is done pretty *good*, is n't it? It looks *good*.

Lesson 230.

Errors in the Use of Conjunctions.

1. I feel *like* I *was* hungry. 2. This drawing did not look *as* neat as the other. 3. It looks *like as though* it would rain. 4. I do n't know *as* I have anything to say. 5. She is a little woman *like* I am. 6. I cannot believe *but what* he knows me. 7. I can't say *as* I can come. 8. When *that* my sister heard the news she looked *like* she would die. 9. I wished to go where *that* I could get medical treatment.

Errors in the Use of Prepositions.

1. We went ~~*for*~~ to ride. 2. I saw him doing ~~*of*~~ it. 3. I don't remember *of* seeing it. 4. He will scold *at* you. 5. She went *in* room R, and found her book. 6. What is the matter *of* you? 7. I am angry *at* you. 8. Where is my book *at?* 9. She has been trying ~~*of*~~ it a long time.

Lesson 231.

Errors in the Use of Verbs and Verbals.

1. I never *seen* her. 2. *Can* I pass you this? 3. I have *did* all my work. 4. The orange *don't* taste *nicely*. 5. I *done* it. 6. I wish I *was* in your place. 7. Everybody has *got* one. 8. I *seen* him. 9. I have *saw* larger ones than that. 10. I intended *to have went* Friday. 11. I *guess* I *will* not go until Saturday. 12. She *come* last night. 13. Mr. P. and Mr. S. *is* absent. 14. I *ain't* going. 15. Accidents *is* often caused by such carelessness. 16. The bell has *rang*. 17. *Hain't* you got your map yet? 18. I know there *was* no cars there. 19. I *won't* want any. 20. Do you remember the day we *sung* that song? 21. I have *did* all my work. 22. I *went and said* it before I thought. 23. We have to *set* there and do nothing. 24. *Them is* beetles. 25. I wonder if any of them *is* going to *get* left. 26. I *begun* drawing yesterday. 27. I *ain't got* time. 28. *Bring* this up stairs when you go. 29. All these *was* known as the Alabama claims. 30. You *can* include me, if you wish. 31. He *don't* speak correctly. 32. If I *had have* known it, I might have gone. 33. He *give* me ninety-five. 34. It's *began* to go. 35. I am *froze*. 36. What *will* I draw? 37. My pencil is *broke*. 38. You *hadn't ought* to go. 39. Did you draw it according to the map she *give?* 40. *Are they* any one who *wish* to put *their names* on this paper? 41. Every one *have* me down for mistakes. 42. It makes no difference if there *is* two words. 43. The first thing I *know* I was in the house. 44. I *would like to have went*. 45. My uncle *set* down and began to talk. 46. Neither George nor Will *were* home. 47. Father *come* home in the evening. 48. Gas *has flown* from a well there for some time. 49. I intended *to have called* long ago. 50. She feared *offending* her father. 51. I should *liked to have seen* the trained horses. 52. She was *a reading of* it to the neighbors. 53. Did you ever hear of *me* being punished in school? 54. Be sure *and* get your lessons. 55. You never spoke to me about that, but you ought to. 56. I meant *to have told* her about the exhibition, but I forgot to. 57. Stealing is *to take* what belongs to another. 58. Try *and* find your book. 59. I have my pupils *to write* out their work. 60. I could not *get to go* any earlier. 61. Frank, help me *pack* these bundles home. 62. You *hadn't ought* to be so careless. 63. We didn't *go to do* such mischief.

Topical Abstracts in Review.

[**To the Teacher.**—As a means of culture in oral expression and of independent recitation, let the pupil, in review, recite each topic as presented in the following abstracts, without questioning from the teacher, explaining each consecutive step, or making definitions for himself, and giving illustrations by means of examples already given, or, what is much better, examples collected or constructed by himself.

The points are not, in all cases, arranged in the order in which they were originally developed, but rather more in the order of topics for an essay or lecture, in which the pupil is to make clear, concise, and logically connected statements.

These abstracts may be used, at the discretion of the teacher, either as a final review of the whole subject of Grammar, or at the close of the respective chapters.]

CHAPTER XII.

Topical Abstracts in Review.

- **Sentences.**
  - 1. Language.
  - 2. Grouping of parts.
    - 1. Words.
    - 2. Phrases.
    - 3. Clauses.
  - 3. Signification.
    - 1. Declarative. } Exclamatory.
    - 2. Interrogative. } Exclamatory.
    - 3. Imperative. } Exclamatory.
    - 4. Capitals and closing punctuation marks.
  - 4. Form.
    - 1. Simple.
    - 2. Complex. { Clauses.
      - 1. Principal, or Independent.
      - 2. Subordinate, or Dependent.
    - 3. Compound. { Clauses independent.
  - 5. Analysis.

- **Parts of Sentences.**
  - 1. Office.
    - 1. Principal.
      - 1. Subject.
      - 2. Predicate.
        - 1. Always a verb.
          - 1. Complete.
          - 2. Incomplete.
        - 2. Complement.
          - 1. Object Complement.
          - 2. Attribute of Subject.
          - 3. Attribute of Object.
    - 2. Subordinate, or adjuncts.
      - 1. Adjective.
      - 2. Adverbial.
    - 3. Independent.
    - 4. Connectives.
      - 1. Conjunction.
      - 2. Connective Pronoun.
      - 3. Connective Adverb.
  - 2. Form.
    - 1. Words. { Parts of Speech.
    - 2. Phrases.
      - 1. Prepositional.
      - 2. Verbal.
        - 1. Participial.
        - 2. Infinitive.
      - 3. Absolute.
    - 3. Clauses.
    - (Any part may be compound.)

- Nouns and Pronouns.
  - 1. Classes of nouns.
    - 1. Common.
      - Collective.
    - 2. Proper.
      - (Capital letters.)
  - 2. Modifications.
    - 1. Person.
      - 1. First, Second, Third.
      - 2. Changes of form in pronouns only.
    - 2. Gender.
      - 1. Masculine, Feminine, Neuter.
      - 2. Ways of distinguishing, in nouns.
        - 1.
        - 2.
        - 3.
      - 3. Gender forms of pronouns
    - 3. Number.
      - 1. Singular.
      - 2. Plural.
        - 1. General Rules.
        - 2. Special Rules.
        - 3. Exceptions, etc.
    - 4. Relation, or Office.
      - 1. Subject.
      - 2. Object.
      - 3. Object of Preposition.
      - 4. Possessive adjunct.
        - 1. Possessive of Nouns.
        - 2. Possessive of Pronouns.
      - 5. Attribute of Subject.
      - 6. Attribute of Object.
      - 7. Appositional.
      - 8. Adverbial.
      - 9. Independent.
      - 10. Rules and Cautions.
  - 3. Connected possessives.
    - Apostrophe repeated.
    - Apostrophe but once.

- Pronouns.
  - 1. Meaning of word.
  - 2. Antecedent.
  - 3. Classes.
    - 1. Personal.
      - 1. Simple.
        - 1. List.
        - 2. Declension.
        - 3. Possessives.
          - 1. First form—Use.
          - 2. Second form—Use.
      - 2. Compound.
        - 1. List.
          - Singular and Plural.
        - 2. Uses.
          - 1. Emphasis.
          - 2. Reflexively.
    - 2. Connective.
      - 1. Simple.
        - 1. List.
        - 2. Declension.
        - 3. Different uses of each.
        - 4. *That* preferred.
          - Rules.
      - 2. Double.
        - *What*
          - 1. Expanded.
          - 2. Different offices as a pronoun.
          - 3. As other parts of speech.
      - 3. Compound.
        - 1. List.
        - 2. Declension.
        - 3. Rule for *whoever*.
    - 3. Interrogative.
      - 1. List.
      - 2. Declension.
      - 3. Always simple.
      - 4. Always in third person.
  - 4. Modifications.
    - Same as nouns.
  - 5. Rules and Cautions.
    - 1. Agreement with antecedent.
    - 2. Choice of pronouns, etc.

- Adjectives.
  - 1. Classes.
    - 1. Limiting.
      - 1. Article.
        - 1. Definite.
        - 2. Indefinite. {Rules.
      - 2. Numerals.
      - 3. Pronominals.
        - 1. List.
        - 2. Same declined.
        - 3. Same compared.
    - 2. Descriptive.
      - 1. Uses.
        - 1. Adjunct.
        - 2. Attribute.
        - 3. Substantive.
      - 2. Classes.
        - 1. Common.
        - 2. Proper.
        - 3. Compound.
        - 4. Verbal.
  - 2. Comparison.
    - 1. Forms.
      - 1. Positive.
      - 2. Comparative.
      - 3. Superlative.
    - 2. Rules.
      - 1. *Er* and *est*.
      - 2. *More* and *most*, *less* and *least*.
    - 3. Irregular.
    - 4. Certain adjectives not compared.
  - 3. Rules and Cautions.

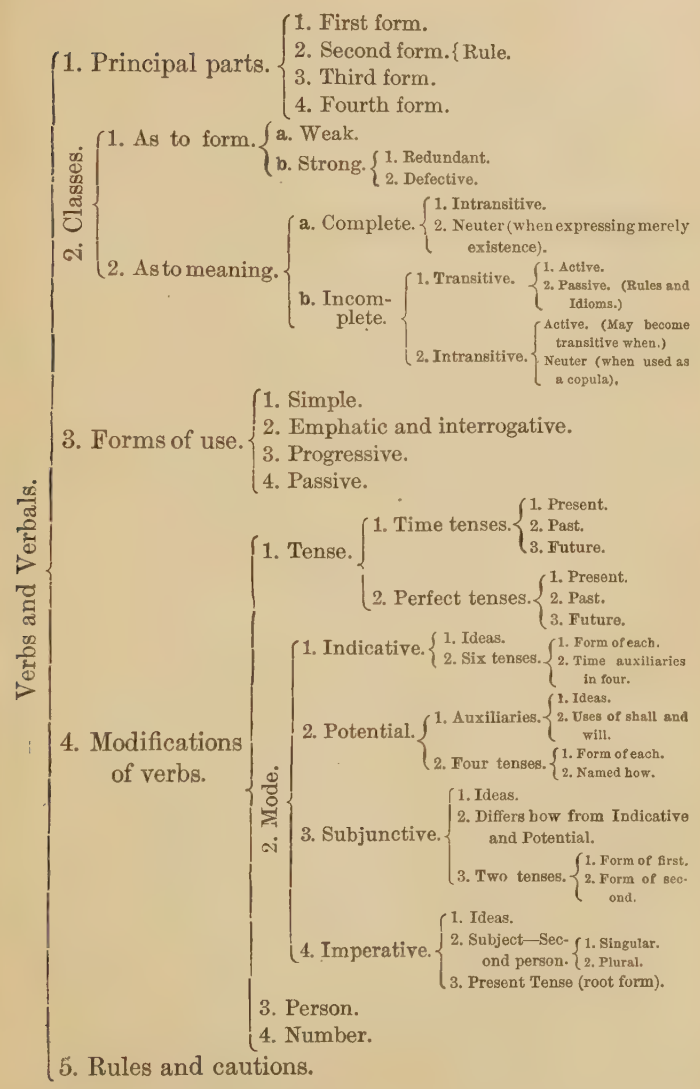
- Adverbs.
  - 1. Classes.
    - 1. Use.
      - 1. Simple.
      - 2. Interrogative.
      - 3. Connective, or Conjunctive.
    - 2. Meaning.
      - 1. Time.
      - 2. Place.
      - 3. Degree.
      - 4. Cause.
      - 5. Manner.
      - 6. Exclusion.
      - 7. Addition, etc.
  - 2. Modification. {Comparison,—but few.
  - 3. Rules and Cautions.

Conjunctions.

1. Meaning of word.
2. Connect what.
3. Rank of parts connected.
   1. Coördinate.
   2. Subordinate.
4. Meaning of parts connected.
5. Form.
   1. Simple.
   2. Compound.
   3. Correlative.
      1. List.
      2. Rules.
6. General Rules and cautions.

Prepositions.

1. Meaning of word.
2. Some of the relations shown.
   1. Position.
   2. Possession.
   3. Agency.
   4. Accompaniment.
   5. Resemblance, etc.
3. The object.
   1. Word.
   2. Phrase.
   3. Clause (rarely).
4. Kinds.
   1. Common.
   2. Compound.
   3. Ending in *ing*.
5. Choice depends upon what.
6. Rules and cautions.


Verbs and Verbals.
1. Principal parts.
1. First form.
2. Second form. Rule.
3. Third form.
4. Fourth form.
2. Classes.
1. As to form.
a. Weak.
b. Strong.
1. Redundant.
2. Defective.
2. As to meaning.
a. Complete.
1. Intransitive.
2. Neuter (when expressing merely existence).
b. Incomplete.
1. Transitive.
1. Active.
2. Passive. (Rules and Idioms.)
2. Intransitive.
Active. (May become transitive when.)
Neuter (when used as a copula).
3. Forms of use.
1. Simple.
2. Emphatic and interrogative.
3. Progressive.
4. Passive.
4. Modifications of verbs.
1. Tense.
1. Time tenses.
1. Present.
2. Past.
3. Future.
2. Perfect tenses.
1. Present.
2. Past.
3. Future.
2. Mode.
1. Indicative.
1. Ideas.
2. Six tenses.
1. Form of each.
2. Time auxiliaries in four.
2. Potential.
1. Auxiliaries.
1. Ideas.
2. Uses of shall and will.
2. Four tenses.
1. Form of each.
2. Named how.
3. Subjunctive.
1. Ideas.
2. Differs how from Indicative and Potential.
3. Two tenses.
1. Form of first.
2. Form of second.
4. Imperative.
1. Ideas.
2. Subject—Second person.
1. Singular.
2. Plural.
3. Present Tense (root form).
3. Person.
4. Number.
5. Rules and cautions.

- Verbals.
  - 1. Infinitives.
    - 1. Classed like verbs.
      - 1. Regular and Irregular.
      - 2. Active, Passive, Neuter, etc.
    - 2. Differ from Participles.
    - 3. The sign *to* understood after
      1. . . . .
      2. . . . .
      3. . . . .
      4. . . . .
      5. . . . .
      6. . . . .
      7. . . . .
      8. . . . .
    - 4. The sign *to be* understood after
      1. . . . .
      2. . . . .
      3. . . . .
      4. . . . .
    - 5. Tenses.
      - 1. Present, Form of
        1. Active and Neuter.
        2. Passive.
      - 2. Perfect, Form of
        1. Active and Neuter.
        2. Passive.
    - 6. Used
      1. Substantively.
      2. Adverbially.
      3. Adjectively.
      4. Independently.
    - 7. Rules and cautions.
  - 2. Participles.
    - 1. Classed like verbs.
      - 1. Regular and Irregular.
      - 2. Active, Passive, Neuter, etc.
    - 2. May become
      1. Pure Noun.
      2. Pure Adjective.
      3. Pure Adverb.
      4. Pure Preposition.
    - 3. Tenses.
      - 1. Imperfect. { Form of
        1. Active and Neuter.
        2. Passive.
      - 2. Perfect. { Always Passive.
      - 3. Compound Perfect.
        - Active and Neuter.
        - Passive.
    - 4. Used
      1. Adjectively.
      2. Substantively.
      3. Independently.
    - 5. Rules and cautions.

CHAPTER XIII.

Lesson 232.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

CHAPTERS I. AND II.—*Nouns and Pronouns.*

1. Name all the Parts of Speech. Define each. 2. In this definition of a noun, "*A noun is a name word,*" there are six words. Make a definition containing five words. 3. Define *nouns* by using three words: *Nouns* —— ——. 4. Define a *pronoun* in two ways. 5. Name the two great classes of nouns. 6. Which kind should always begin with a capital? 7. When should a noun partly common in sense, begin with a capital?

8. When does a collective noun require a plural verb or pronoun? 9. Pluralize the following nouns and give the reason for each: *ally, alley, book, scissors, 5, torch, talisman, Frenchman, sheep, goose-quill, man-servant, solo, tomato.*

10. What two parts of speech are sometimes changed in form by the modification called *person?* Give examples. 11. Name the *persons* in grammar. Illustrate each.

12. Name the genders. 13. In how many ways may the masculine be distinguished from the feminine? Illustrate. 14. Give the three gender pronouns. 15. What pronoun is preferred when the sex of the person meant is not specified? Illustrate.

16. Give examples of the following: (a) Noun used as a subject. (b) Noun used as an object. (c) As an attribute of the subject. (d) In apposition with the subject. (e) In apposition with the object. (f) As the object of a preposition. (g) In apposition with the object of a preposition. (h) As attribute of the object. (i) Used independently by address. (j) Used independently in an absolute phrase. (k) Used adverbially without a preposition. 17. Use a pronoun in each of the above ways.

18. (a) Give an example of a noun used to limit another noun meaning the same person or thing. (b) Of a pronoun used to limit a noun. (c) Of a noun in apposition with a possessive. 19. (a) Give the rule for forming the possessive singular of nouns. (b) For forming the possessive plural of nouns. 20. What caution should be observed in forming the possessive of pronouns? 21. Name all the possessive pronouns ending in *s*. 22. Name four places where

a possessive noun should be written without the apostrophe. 23. Give the rule for connective nouns showing separate possession. Illustrate. 24. For what purpose does a possessive noun or pronoun ever limit a participle? Illustrate.

25. Name the declinable pronouns. 26. Give three rules for their form. Example of each. 27. Decline *I, he, who, whoever, it.* 28. Use each of these pronouns as the object of an unexpressed preposition, before the object complement.

29. What is analyzing? 30. What is parsing? 31. What is diagraming? 32. Write the formula for parsing nouns. 33. Write the formula for correcting nouns or pronouns having a form not corresponding to their office.

Lesson 233.

Chapter III.—*Pronouns.*

1. What is the antecedent of a pronoun? 2. (a) Give an example of a noun antecedent. (b) A pronoun used as an antecedent. (c) A phrase used as an antecedent. (d) A clause used as an antecedent. (e) What is most frequently used as the antecedent? 3. Give examples of an antecedent understood.

4. What is a personal pronoun? 5. Name all the simple personal pronouns. 6. Decline them. 7. Select all the possessive forms of the personal pronouns. 8. When are *my, your,* etc., used? Illustrate. 9. When are *mine, yours,* etc., used? Illustrate. 10. Give an example in which *mine* equals two words. 11. What does the expression, *This is a friend of mine,* equal? 12. What is the meaning of the expression, *This friend of mine was very true to me?* 13. Explain the expressions, *This heart of mine; That head of thine,* etc.

14. Name the compound personal pronouns. 15. How are they formed? 16. Give the plural of each. 17. What form is always lacking? 18. What is the chief use of compound personal pronouns? 19. (a) Give an example of *myself* used in apposition. (b) Used reflexively after a verb. (c) After a preposition. 20. (a) Give an example of *himself,* used merely for emphasis. (b) Of *thyself,* used reflexively. 21. For what modification do the compound personal pronouns change their form? 22. Give the rule for the agreement of personal pronouns.

23. What is a connective pronoun? 24. Name the simple connective pronouns. 25. Use each in a sentence and show what sub-

stantive office the connective pronoun performs in the adjective clause. 26. Decline the simple connective pronouns. 27. Write the formula for parsing personal pronouns. 28. The formula for parsing simple connective pronouns. 29. Use *what* as a connective pronoun, then expand the sentence and tell to which clause the antecedent part of *what* belongs. 30. What other word in the sentence is frequently affected by the person and number of the connective pronoun? Illustrate. 31. What other parts of speech may *what* be? Illustrate each. 32. What other parts of speech may *that* be? Illustrate. 33. Give examples of *but* used as three different parts of speech besides a connective pronoun. 34. (a) Use *as* as a connective pronoun. (b) As a connective adverb. (c) As an introductory conjunction.

35. Name and decline the compound connective pronouns. 36. Upon what does the form of *whoever* depend? 37. (a) Use *whoever* in the nominative form. (b) In the objective. (c) Prove by analysis that you have used them correctly. 38. Write the formula for parsing double and compound connective pronouns.

39. Give all the rules and cautions for the agreement of pronouns having antecedents connected by *and*. 40. All the rules for pronouns having antecedents connected by *or* or *nor*. 41. For those having collective antecedents. 42. Three other rules for the use of personal pronouns. 43. Name and illustrate eight constructions in which *that* is preferred to *who* or *which*. 44. Five additional rules for the use of connective pronouns. 45. Give an example of a connective pronoun understood.

46. Define an interrogative pronoun. 47. (a) Give an example of an interrogative pronoun that *asks* a question. (b) One that *implies* a question. 48. Why can not the gender and number of an interrogative pronoun be determined? 49. Interrogative pronouns are always in which person? Why? 50. How is the interrogative *who* declined? 51. Give examples in sentences of each of its forms.

Lesson 234.

Chapter IV.—*Adjectives.*

1. What is an adjective? 2. (a) Give an example of a limiting adjective. (b) Of a descriptive adjective that both limits and describes. (c) Of a limiting adjective that numbers. (d) Of *the* before a plural noun. (e) Of *an* before a word beginning with the

aspirate sound of *h*. 3. Name twelve pronominal adjectives; use each one in a sentence and then change it to an ordinary limiting adjective. 4. Give the plural of the following adjectives: *this, that, one, other*. 5. Give the possessive of *one, other, others, another*. 6. (a) Use *which* as an interrogative adjective asking a question. (b) As an interrogative adjective implying a question. 7. (a) Use *what* as an adjective asking a question. (b) Implying a question. 8. (a) Use a descriptive adjective as an adjective adjunct. (b) As an attribute of the subject. (c) As an attribute of the object. (d) Substantively. 9. (a) Use a proper adjective. (b) A compound. (c) A verbal.

10. (a) Define comparison. (b) Name the forms of comparison. 11. (a) What does the comparative show? (b) The superlative? Illustrate in sentences. 12. What adjectives of two syllables are compared by affixing *er* and *est*? 13. Give examples of dissyllables compared by prefixing *more* and *most*. 14. Dissyllables compared so as to express diminution. 15. Give an example of a limiting adjective that can be compared. 16. Of a descriptive adjective that can not be compared. 17. Of an adjective compared irregularly, or by a complete change of the word. 18. Compare *good, little, bad, well, far, late, many, near, top*.

19. Write the form for parsing adjectives. 20. Give the rules for choosing between the use of *an* and *a*. Illustrate. 21. For connected adjectives describing different things. Illustrate. 22. For connected adjectives describing the same thing. Illustrate. 23. Give the rule for articles used with connective nouns. Illustrate. 24. Mention and illustrate seven cases where an article before a noun would be incorrect. 25. (a) Rule for the distinction between *few* and *little*. (b) Between *few* and *a few*. (c) Between *little* and *a little*. Illustrate each. 26. In expressing a comparison with *than*, when should each noun have an article? Illustrate. 27. Give the rule with regard to the number form of adjectives. 28. Why is it correct to say "a *five-cent* piece?" 29. Name five nouns that are singular when used with numerals, but that otherwise add *s*. 30. (a) *Either* and *neither* should refer to how many things? (b) *Each other*? (c) *One another*? Illustrate each.

31. When adjectives are of the same rank, which should be placed first? 32. What conjunctions connect terms of the same rank? 33. What should be used when the conjunction is omitted? 34. Give and illustrate the rule for a series of adjectives of different rank. 35. Why is it not correct to say, "I have a *horrible cold*?"

36. (a) Give and illustrate the rule for contrasting *this* and *that*. (b) *The one* and *the other*. 37. Rule for the position of adjectives. 38. For double comparison. 39. When should the latter term of comparison exclude the former? Illustrate. 40. When include the former? Illustrate. 41. Rule for the use of adverbs of degree with adjectives that can not be compared.

Lesson 235.

Chapter V.—*Adverbs.*

1. What does the word *adverb* mean? 2. Name and illustrate all the different parts of speech and other expressions that adverbs may modify. 3. What is an interrogative adverb? 4. (a) Give an example of an adverb asking a question. (b) Of one implying a question. Diagram each sentence. 5. Name all the adverbs that can be used interrogatively. 6. What is a connective adverb? 7. Give an example of a connective adverb that can be expanded into two phrases, and diagram the sentence. 8. Give an example of a connective adverb that can be expanded into but one phrase. Diagram. 9. Name seven things that adverbs may show. Illustrate each. 10. Use the following in sentences, first as adverbs, then as adjectives: *Hard, near, like, above, early, only, high, low, fast.* 11. How are those adverbs that admit of comparison varied? 12. Give an example of an adverb of place modifying a word understood. 13. An adverb of time modifying a word understood. 14. Give the caution with regard to the position of adverbs. 15. Choice of *no* and *not*. 16. Choice of *how* and *that*. 17. Choice of *that* and *so*. 18. Caution about prefixing prepositions to adverbs. 19. Give all the remaining cautions under *adverbs*.

Lesson 236.

Chapter VI.—*Conjunctions.*

1. What are words that perform no other office than to connect? Illustrate. 2. What does *coördinate* mean? 3. Illustrate five different kinds of elements that may be joined by coördinate conjunctions. 4. (a) Give an example of *while* used as a conjunctive adverb. (b) As a coördinate conjunction. 5. What is a subordinate conjunction? Illustrate. 6. (a) What is the meaning given in the

dictionary for the word *correlative?* (b) How does this meaning apply to correlative conjunctions? 7. Give examples of (a) conjunctions denoting addition, (b) cause and effect, (c) supposition, (d) a conjunction introducing a subject clause, (e) one denoting separation or opposition, (f) denoting a choice. 8. Write out the form for parsing conjunctions. 9. Give an example of an idiomatic subordinate conjunction connecting an infinitive to some other word. 10. Give and illustrate the uses of *either—or, neither—nor, as—as, so—as, as—so, so—that, such—that, such—as.* 11. (a) An example of *as* used to introduce an attribute of the object. (b) Of the subject. 12. Give the rule for connected terms referring jointly to another. 13. What conjunction should follow comparatives? 14. When may the preposition *besides* follow *else, more,* etc.?

Lesson 237.

CHAPTER VII.—*Prepositions.*

1. What part of speech connects words of different rank? 2. Illustrate five different relations shown by prepositions. 3. Name the different forms of expression that may be used as the object of a preposition, and illustrate each. 4. What parts of speech are most frequently used as the object of a preposition? 5. (a) Give an example of *like* as a preposition; (b) *near;* (c) *worth;* (d) *but;* (e) *during;* (f) *notwithstanding.* 6. Use the following, first as prepositions, then as conjunctions, then as conjunctive adverbs, if possible: *after, since, for, until, before.* 7. Use the following, first as prepositions, then as simple adverbs: *up, down, below, past, by, in, near.* 8. Give four examples of compound prepositions. 9. (a) Name four prepositions ending in *ing* that are each equivalent to *about.* (b) Use them as verbals also.

10. Write the form for parsing prepositions. 11. Give the rule for choice of prepositions, and illustrate. 12. Rule and illustration for the position of prepositional phrases. 13. Illustrate three unnecessary uses of the preposition, and show why the preposition is not needed. 14. In the sentence, *It was the size of a walnut,* where is a preposition needed, and why? 15. Which is correct—*He acts like her,* or *He acts like she does?* 16. If the subordinate clause in the last sentence is retained, what change should be made? 17. Insert the proper connective, and tell what part of speech it is: (a) It looks —— —— he were guilty. (b) He behaved —— a madman would have behaved.

Chapter VIII.—*Interjections.*

1. What is an interjection? 2. Illustrate interjections expressing four different emotions. 3. Give the three rules for interjections and illustrate each. 4. Give the caution.

Lesson 238.

Chapter IX.—*Verbs and Verbals.*

1. What does a verb do? Illustrate. 2. How do verbals differ from verbs? 3. (a) Give an example of a complete verb. (b) A complete verbal. (c) An incomplete verbal. (d) An attribute complement. (e) An object complement. 4. Name the four Principal Parts of a verb. 5. How can the first form be obtained? 6. (a) Give the four forms of *lie, sit, ring, come, do, set, lay, fall, flee, fly, flow.* (b) Use each form in a sentence. 7. Give the four rules for the use of the Principal Parts. 8. What are strong verbs. Illustrate. 9. (a) Give an example of a redundant verb. (b) Of a defective verb. (c) Of a verb asserting action. (d) A verb asserting being. (e) Of a verb asserting a relation between an attribute and the subject.

10. What is the meaning of the word *transitive?* 11. (a) Name two actions that are naturally transitive. (b) Two intransitive. 12. Use *runs* as a transitive verb. 13. Tell which of the following verbs are naturally transitive: *Bite, tear, lie* (to recline), *set* (to place), *sit, lay* (to place), *set out, fly, govern, am.* 14. Use the following in sentences, first transitively, second intransitively: *Turn, burn, sing, speak, walk.* 15. (a) Describe the progressive form. (b) The emphatic. 16. When a transitive verb or verbal is in the active form, what names the recipient of the act? What names the actor? Illustrate. 17. In the passive form, of what is the verb or verbal composed? What then names the recipient of the action? 18. What verbs can not have the passive form? Why? 19. When a sentence in which the object has an attribute is changed to the passive, what becomes the office of that attribute? Illustrate. 20. (a) Give an example of an idiomatic object. (b) Of three different kinds of idiomatic passives.

21. (a) How long is the *real* present tense? (b) The *assumed* present tense? 22. (a) Name the perfect tenses and illustrate each. (b) Why are they called perfect?

Lesson 239.

Chapter IX.—Continued.

23. What is mode? 24. What mode asserts a fact? Illustrate. 25. What mode admits or concedes a fact? Illustrate. 26. What mode always uses an auxiliary? 27. What mode uses the root form of the verb throughout the present tense, and the plural form throughout the past tense? 28. What mode is found nowhere except in a subordinate clause? 29. What other modes may be in a subordinate clause? 30. What is the chief peculiarity of the subjunctive mode? Illustrate by comparing with the indicative. 31. (a) Give an example of a potential expressing permission. (b) Of an imperative expressing permission. How do they differ?

32. What mode has the tenses in their most natural order? 33. How many has it? 34. What is the form of the simple present indicative? 35. Describe the form of the remaining five tenses in the simple indicative, and illustrate each. 36. (a) How many tenses in the potential mode? (b) Name, describe, and illustrate each. 37. Are the potential tenses named from their form or from their meaning? 38. Name, describe, and illustrate the tenses of the subjunctive mode. 39. What form of the verb is used with both singular and plural subjects, in the imperative? 40. Give the rules for the use of *shall, will, should,* and *would,* and illustrate each.

Lesson 240.

Chapter IX.—Continued.

41. In modern English, where are the only variations of form for person and number? Describe each. 42. What is the difference between a conjugation and a synopsis? 43. Conjugate *swim* in the simple form of construction. 44. Give a synopsis of *swim* in the third person singular. 45. Write the form for parsing verbs. 46. In which modes do verbs vary their form for the person and number of the subject? 47. Give all the rules for verbs that can be made from the rules for the agreement of pronouns. Illustrate each. 48. Give the two rules in Lesson 208, and the one in Lesson 209. Illustrate each.

49. (a) Give an example of an infinitive used substantively. (b) Adverbially. (c) Adjectively. (d) Independently. 50. Describe the form of the present active and the neuter infinitive.

51. (a) Describe the present passive infinitive. (b) The perfect infinitives. 52. Give the rule for the present infinitive after *intending*, *hoping*, etc. 53. (a) Give the rules for the omission of the particle *to*. (b) When should the particle *to* not be omitted?

54. (a) Give an example of a participle that is part verb and part adjective. (b) Of a participle part verb and part noun. (c) One independent in office. 55. Name the three tense forms of participles. 56. Describe each in the active construction. 57. What tense is wanting in the active construction of participles? 58. Describe each tense in the passive form. Illustrate each. 59. What participle is always simple and always passive? 60. Write the form for parsing verbals. 61. Give the rules and cautions pertaining to the use of participles, illustrating each by an original example.

CHAPTER XIV.

Lesson 241.

PUNCTUATION.

Notice the position and use of the comma and of the period in the following sentences. Analyze the sentences, and place the punctuation marks in the diagrams.

Note.—*Punctuation must be learned by practice. Pupils should write sentences similar to those given in these Lessons, and have them read and corrected in the class.*

1. Mary, please give me your book, your slate and your pencil.
2. Mary, please take your seat, study your geography, and learn the lesson.
3. Wallace, when doing his best, learns rapidly.
4. I have known Wallace, even though naturally smart, to have very poor lessons.
5. You will surely fail, unless you do better.
6. If you do your best, you will certainly succeed.
7. A desire to learn, a love for study, and a determination to do right, are characteristics of good pupils.
8. Carelessness and inattention, thoughtlessness and disorder, slovenliness and disobedience, are faults of poor pupils.
9. Lincoln, the martyr president of the United States, died on the 15th of April, 1865.
10. Johnson, who had been elected vice-president, acted as president after Lincoln's death.
11. The king being dead, the prince ascended the throne.
12. Cruel in disposition and immoral in character, the prince astonished everybody by becoming a good king.

In the sentences above, find the following ten uses of the comma:

1. To set off—separate from the rest of the sentence—the name of a person addressed.
2. To indicate the omission of a conjunction.
3. To set off a modifying clause, when not closely connected.
4. To separate words connected by a conjunction, but modified by different phrases.

5. To separate from the verb the last of several successive subjects, when the subjects have modifying phrases.

6. To set off words in pairs, when the words of each pair are connected by a conjunction.

7. To set off an explanatory modifier with its own modifiers.

8. To set off the name of the year in a date.

9. To set off an independent phrase.

10. To set off modifiers that are themselves modified by phrases.

Lesson 242.

The Comma, Semicolon, and Period.

Let us put the sentences of the last lesson together, two and two. See whether the same ideas are expressed; and notice the new words used, those omitted or changed, and the additional punctuation needed:

a. Mary, please give me your book, your slate, and your pencil; *then* take your seat, study your geography, and learn the lesson.

b. Wallace, when doing his best, learns rapidly; *but* I have known *him*, even though naturally smart, to have very poor lessons.

c. You will surely fail, unless you do better; *though* if you do your best, you will certainly succeed.

d. A desire to learn, a love for study, and a determination to do right, are characteristics of good pupils; *while* carelessness and inattention, thoughtlessness and disorder, slovenliness and disobedience, are faults of poor pupils.

e. Lincoln, the martyr president of the United States, died on the 15th of April, 1865; *and* Johnson, who had been elected vice-president, acted as president after Lincoln's death.

f. The king being dead, the prince ascended the throne; *and*, *though* cruel in disposition and immoral in character, *he* astonished everybody by becoming a good king.

Analyze the sentences **a** to **f**, and compare their diagrams with those of the sentences of the previous lesson. Place the punctuation marks in all the diagrams.

You find but one use of the semicolon in the sentences of this lesson, and that is to separate independent clauses

in which commas are used. Independent clauses in which no commas are used, should be separated by the comma, as in the last sentence.

Lesson 243.

THE COMMA, SEMICOLON, COLON, AND PERIOD.

Study the following sentences carefully; notice the position and use of the different punctuation marks; and observe what new words or expressions are used, when the simple sentences are combined to form compound sentences. Observe a particular use of the period in sentences 6 and b.

1. Rice, wheat, Indian corn, rye, oats and barley constitute the principal grain food of man.

2. Beef, mutton, pork, veal, venison, fish and fowl supply the principal animal food of man.

3. Asparagus, cabbage, celery, cauliflower, green corn, green peas, string beans, and the potato, turnip, radish, tomato, and beet form the principal vegetable food of man.

a. Rice, wheat, Indian corn, rye, oats and barley constitute the principal grain food of man; *and* beef, mutton, pork, veal, venison, fish and fowl supply the principal animal food of man; *while* asparagus, cabbage, celery, cauliflower, green corn, green peas, string beans, and the potato, turnip, radish, tomato, and beet form *his* principal vegetable food.

4. Oranges, lemons, figs, grapes, and other semi-tropical fruits grow abundantly in many parts of California.

5. California produces great quantities of apples, pears, peaches, plums, and other fruits common to the temperate zone.

6. California, though extending only from Lat. 32° to 42° North, has great enough variety of soil and climate, on account of its valleys, hills and mountains, and the proximity of the Pacific, to enable it to produce nearly all the fruits found in the whole world.

b. Oranges, lemons, figs, grapes, and other semi-tropical fruits grow abundantly in many parts of California; *and this state* produces *also* great quantities of apples, pears, peaches, plums, and other fruits common to the temperate zone: *so it is found that* California, though extending only from Lat. 32° to 42° North, has

great enough variety of soil and climate, on account of its valleys, hills and mountains, and the proximity of the Pacific, to enable it to produce nearly all the fruits found in the whole world.

7. Our roads are dry, hot, and dusty, in summer.

8. Our roads are frequently wet and muddy, and sometimes impassable, in winter.

9. The travel by railroad is seldom unpleasant, or interrupted in any way except by great storms of snow in the mountains.

10. The pleasantest time to travel in all the different parts of California is either soon after the last rains in the spring, or immediately after the first rains in the fall.

c. Our roads are dry, hot, and dusty, in summer; *and they* are frequently wet and muddy, and sometimes impassable, in winter; *but* the travel by railroad is seldom unpleasant, or interrupted in any way except by great storms of snow in the mountains: *so, all things considered,* the pleasantest time to travel in all the different parts of California is either soon after the last rains in the spring, or immediately after the first rains in the fall.

11. Some soils are deep, dry, warm, dark-colored, and strong; and others are shallow, wet, cold, light-colored, and weak.

12. In the soils that are deep, dry, warm, etc., fruits and vegetables grow large, sweet, abundant, and well-formed; while in the soils that are shallow, wet, cold, etc., fruits and vegetables grow, if they grow at all, small, insipid, few, and ill-shaped.

d. Some soils are deep, dry, warm, dark-colored, and strong; and others are shallow, wet, cold, light-colored, and weak: in the *former,* fruits and vegetables grow large, sweet, abundant, and well-formed; while in the *latter, they* grow, if they grow at all, small, insipid, few, and ill-shaped.

In this Lesson you find the colon as well as the semicolon used to separate the independent clauses. Compare **a** with **b** and **c**. Notice that the semicolon separates independent clauses of the same kind, while the colon sets off an independent clause that contains a more general thought inferred from the preceding clauses. In **d** the colon separates two compound sentences in which semicolons are used. Why is **d** preferable to 11 and 12? In 7 and 8 the comma is used to set off phrases separated from the words they qualify. In 4 and 5 see examples of the 4th direction in Lesson 241.

And in the directions of that Lesson, see another use of the colon to separate numbered phrases or clauses from the statement that introduces them.

Lesson 244.

Sometimes the adjectives modifying a noun need to be separated by commas, while in other cases the commas are not needed.

See if you can determine, by the following examples, when it is that commas are needed, and when not:

1. James is a bad, ungrateful, dissipated fellow; but his sister Ellen is a good, refined, beautiful girl.

2. The Governor lives in a splendid large three-story mansion, and he drives a pair of beautiful large iron-gray horses.

a. James is a bad fellow, an ungrateful fellow, a dissipated fellow; but his sister Ellen is a good girl, a refined girl, a beautiful girl.

b. The Governor lives in a stone mansion, a three-story stone mansion, a large three-story stone mansion, a splendid large three-story stone mansion; and he drives a pair of iron-gray horses, a pair of large iron-gray horses, a pair of beautiful large iron-gray horses.

Comparing 1 with a, notice that each adjective modifies the noun only; but comparing 2 with b, notice that the last adjective modifies the noun, that the next adjective preceding modifies the adjective and noun following, and that each one back to the first modifies all that follow.

For the use of the comma in punctuating Relative Clauses, see examples Lesson 107.

The connective pronoun *that*, with its clause, should not be set off by the comma; but *who* and *which*, when they mean *and it*, *and they*, etc., should, with their clauses, be set off by the comma.

Have you observed that the comma is used for the simplest punctuation, that the semicolon is used to indicate a greater change in the sentence than that shown by the comma, and that the colon is used to indicate a still greater change in the sentence? And have you noticed that the period is used to indicate the end of a completed sentence, and that it is also used to complete an abbreviation?

Lesson 245.

The Interrogation, Exclamation, and Bracket.

Notice how each is used, and for what purpose. Here and farther on, note two uses of the apostrophe.

Nellie. Who is that coming with May?

Russell. Don't you know?

Nellie. Is it brother Charley? Why, it is, sure enough! Oh! oh! oh! how glad I am! [*Clapping her hands, and jumping up and down.*]

Russell. Be quiet, Nell! Don't get excited, or you'll have everybody staring at you.

Nellie. O Charley, have you come at last! [*Hugging him tight,* [tightly] *with her arms around his neck.*]

In the following sentences, see how a question may become an exclamation:

1. My boy, what are you doing up in that tree?
2. You young rascal, what are you doing up in that tree!
3. Well, Jack, old horse, where are you going now?
4. Whoa, Jack, you old villain, where are you going now!
5. My dear little brother, what is the matter with you?
6. You little nuisance, what is the matter with you!

The interrogation point is placed at the end of each sentence that is a question simply.

The exclamation point is placed after exclamations of one word, of several words, or of a whole sentence. Exclamatory expressions may have the form of a question; but if the sentences 1 to 6 are properly read, you will notice how much the exclamations differ from the questions.

Brackets are used (1) to inclose a description of some action not otherwise spoken of, and (2) to inclose a correction of an error in language.

Lesson 246.

Quotations, Etc.

Such statements may be made in four ways, three of them quotations in proper form. Observe the change in the punctuation, and in the words preceding the quoted remark.

1. The boy answered, asking whether they thought he was a fool.
2. The boy answered, "Do you think I am a fool?"
3. The boy's answer was: "Do you think I am a fool?"
4. The boy answered thus: "Do you think I am a fool?'
5. The boy answered, demanding whether they thought he was a fool!
6. The boy answered, "Do you think I am a fool!"
7. The boy's answer was: "Do you think I am a fool!"
8. The boy answered thus: "Do you think I am a fool!"
9. The martyr Stephen died while praying that the Lord Jesus would receive his spirit.
10. The martyr Stephen died while praying, "Lord Jesus, receive my spirit."
11. The martyr Stephen died while offering the prayer: "Lord Jesus, receive my spirit."
12. The martyr Stephen died while offering this prayer: "Lord Jesus, receive my spirit."

Single quotation marks indicate a quotation within a quotation.

13. "Let us sing," said the preacher, "the familiar hymn, 'When I can read my title clear,' found on page 94."
14. The stranger approached the sentinel, whispering, "Don't shoot: the password is 'New York;' or it was an hour ago."
15. "Clifford says, 'seven and three are eleven,'" came in a "squeaky" voice through the open door.

Notice that the quotation marks are used to show the exact words that have been spoken or written by some one, or to show that some word is used in a peculiar way. Notice (1) that the comma sets off each quotation that is a subject clause, or an object clause not formally introduced; (2) that the colon precedes each quotation formally introduced.

Lesson 247.

THE DASH, APOSTROPHE, AND MARKS OF PARENTHESIS.

Here are three ways to arrange and punctuate a parenthetical expression:

1. Father's barn was burned, so they say, at ten o'clock, Monday evening.

2. Father's barn was burned—it was told us in town—at ten o'clock, Monday evening.

3. Father's barn was burned (Mr. Martin sent us word) at ten o'clock Monday evening.

4. All our magazines, the bound as well as the unbound, were injured by yesterday's rain.

5. All our magazines—some bound and some unbound—were injured by yesterday's rain.

6. All our magazines (some of them were bound, and some were unbound) were injured by yesterday's rain.

The following show a particular use of the parenthesis:

7. The speaker remarked as follows:
(Here follows the address of the speaker in his own words.)

8. The speaker remarked that, (Here follow the thoughts of the speaker in the language of the reporter.)

Here is another use of the dash:

9. "Fred went fishing, Harry went hunting, and Bertie—I don't know where he is."

10. "I am well, thank you, mother's health is good, and the children are—Why, child, what makes you so uneasy?"

1. The comma is used to set off a parenthetical expression when it is the least formal—makes the least break in the sentence; 2. The dash is used when the expression is more formal; 3. The parenthesis mark is used when the expression is the most formal.

In 7 and 8 the parenthesis marks are used to inclose directions in regard to what should be placed where the directions are given.

In 9 and 10 the dash indicates a change from one remark to another before the first is completed. The dash is also used to set off a definition or explanation, as in the sentence following 10, and in Lessons 241 and 248.

The apostrophe is used (1) to help complete the possessive form, and (2) to indicate a letter or letters omitted.

Lesson 248.

The Hyphen—Yes and No.

Observe in the following sentences how the hyphen may be used:

1. They were ill-featured, ill-formed, coarse-looking fellows.
2. That was a go-as-you-please race.
3. The word "contumely" should be divided into four syllables, thus; con-tu-me-ly.
4. One of the words frequently misspelled is s-e-p-a-r-a-t-e.

Yes and No.

Teacher. Edward, have you completed your work?
Edward. No, sir: it is not quite done.
Teacher. Stephen, is yours done yet?
Stephen. Yes: I have just finished.
Edward. Can you give me ten minutes more, sir?
Teacher. No: it is time to call the next class. George, is your work done?
George. Yes, sir: all done.

The hyphen is used to form compound words of two or more simple words; also to separate a word into syllables, or into letters.

Another common use is at the end of the line, when part of a word—one or more syllables—is written or printed on the next line below. In manuscript it helps the eye in reading rapidly to have the hyphen written with each part of the word, especially when the page is wide; and it would be well to make the hyphen double (=) to make it more distinct.

Yes or No, when used with or without the name or title of some one addressed, should, when equivalent to a sentence, be set off by the colon. In the answer of Edward, "No, sir:" is equivalent to "I have not completed it, sir."

Lesson 249.

EXAMPLES, REMARKS, RULES.

In the following sentences determine how many different meanings each sentence may have, according to the position of the commas you can use:

1. The name of one firm is Howard Blake & Co.; and the other is styled Abram Thomas Johns & Co.

2. The boys' names are Charles Dexter Henry George Spencer Clifford Percy Jackson Martin Thomas Perry. (From 4 to 11 names, according to the punctuation.)

3. Father went there on Tuesday he took Sam's gun and shot and killed the deer.

4. We went to their cabin frequently visiting the young folks making shakes of the logs and bolts to haul them down to the valley.

REMARKS.—*When we talk, the tones of the voice help to make our words convey the meaning intended; but when we write, the punctuation must take the place of the voice, and, in some degree, make our meaning clear to those who read. If written or printed matter is properly composed and punctuated, one who understands how to read well can easily convey to others the intended meaning by speaking the sentences as given.*

Punctuation, then, is nothing more than the art of pointing off our sentences with the marks in common use, so as to make our written words convey to others the meaning we desire to give. This can be done after considerable practice, if care is taken to have the words, phrases, and clauses properly arranged.

Rule I.—When punctuation marks are needed in a simple or complex sentence—some exceptions—use the comma; also use the comma to separate the parts of a compound sentence, when no comma is used in any part; otherwise use the semicolon.

Rule II.—Use the colon to separate compound sentences in one or both of which a semicolon is used; also to indicate a greater change in a sentence than that shown by the semicolon.

Rule III.—At the end of every completed sentence place a period, unless an interrogation point or an exclamation point is needed.

Rule IV.—Use such punctuation marks as will make each sentence clear, and use only those marks that are needed.

Lesson 250.

Capital Letters.

You have already learned that the proper nouns, the pronoun I, and the exclamation O, as well as the first word of every sentence, should be written with a capital letter. In the sentences already given, notice the use of capital letters in the questions, exclamations, and quotations.

Study the following sentences and determine, if you can, why the capital letters are used:

1. In the "Life of Napoleon" by Scott, we learn that the Great Emperor was sometimes called "Little Corporal" by his soldiers.

2. I have heard boys called by the nicknames: Tubby, Chug, Pokey, and Doctor.

3. The God of the Bible is called Heavenly Father, Creator, Almighty, I Am; and the Savior is called Immanuel, Prince of Peace, Redeemer, and Son of God.

4. Mid trials and troubles be cheerful,
Not tearful—
Go forth with a heart full of song;
Yea, be strong
'Gainst wrong, and in favor of right,
In the light
That shines from the Book divine.

If it is necessary to make a common word conspicuous, it is usually done by making the initial letter a capital; but a word may also be made conspicuous in any one of the following ways: *Banner*, indicating in Italics; BANNER, indicating in small capitals; BANNER, indicating in large capitals.

Rule.—All names of persons however used, titles of books, the principal words used as names of the Deity, and the first word of every line of poetry, should begin with capital letters.

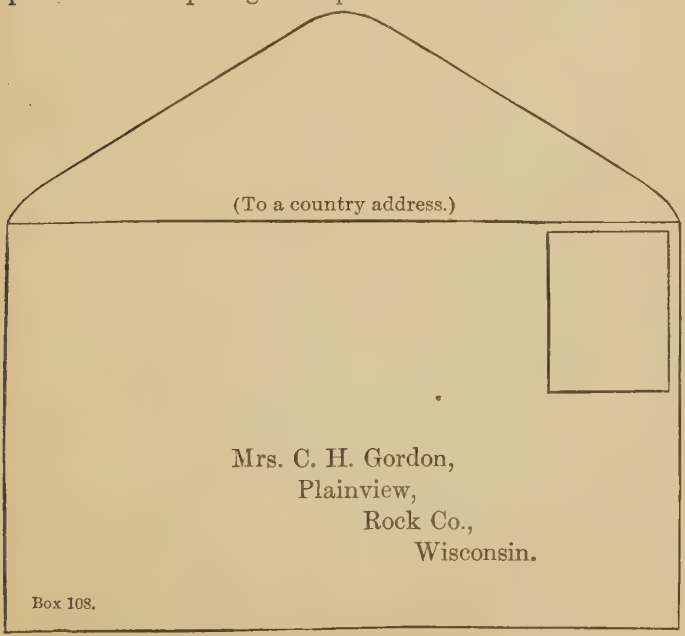
CHAPTER XV.

Letter Writing.

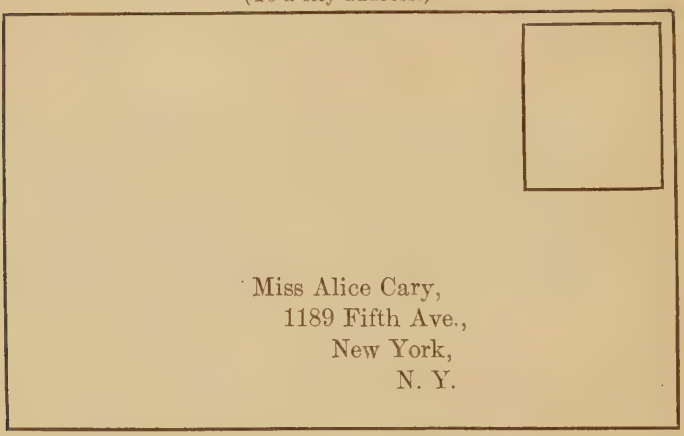
[**To the Teacher.**—Very few of the pupils of the grammar schools will ever attend any school of a higher grade. Their equipment for the duties of life, so far as given in a school education, must be completed here. The subject of Letter Writing is usually presented in Rhetoric, which is beyond the range of grammar school studies. As all persons find occasion to write letters, it seems desirable that some specific instruction should be given in this important subject, in connection with grammar. The more important points are, therefore, here presented, and such examples, comments, and instruction given as seem necessary to prepare the pupil to do his letter writing in after life creditably.]

The Envelope.

Notice (1) the position of the outside address, (2) the capitalization and punctuation of each line, and (3) the position of the postage stamp.



(To a city address.)



The Outside Address should consist of the *title*, *name*, and *residence* of the person addressed.

The Residence consists of the *post-office*, the *county*, and the *state*. If the person addressed lives in a large, well-known city, the *number* and *street* should be given, but the county may be omitted.

The name should be a little below the middle of the envelope, and should be written so that the two ends shall be about equally distant from the right and left edges. The other parts should be arranged below, each a little farther to the right than the preceding line, so as to produce a uniform slope at the left. Be careful to have straight lines, but do not scratch or rule them.

Begin every word with a capital.

Place a comma after each item except the last.

If a title is written after the surname, put a comma between the name and the title.

REMARK.—*The period used after an abbreviation is not a punctuation mark, but is a part of the abbreviation; therefore if a punctuation mark should be used after the whole word, it should be used after the abbreviation.*

When an abbreviation occurs at the end of a sentence or address, however, but one period is used.

Place the postage stamp right end up, upon the upper right hand corner, as it is placed on stamped government envelopes, a slight distance from the corner, but with the edges of the stamp parallel with the edges of the envelope.

REMARKS AND CAUTIONS.—*A letter sent by the hand of a messenger needs no stamp. Politeness requires that the bearer's name be written upon the outside of the envelope, preceded by the words* "**Politeness of**" *or* "**Kindness of.**" *This is usually placed in the lower left hand corner.*

A letter of introduction to be delivered by the person introduced should be left unsealed, and, in general, courtesy requires that any letter carried by an unpaid messenger should be left unsealed.

Never forget to inclose a stamp when sending a letter requesting an answer solely for your own information. When sending such a letter to an entire stranger, it is better to inclose an envelope also, directed to your own address.

Special Caution.—*The majority of letters that fail to reach the persons for whom they are intended, are lost through some error or omission in the direction of the envelope, or because they have not the necessary stamp. Learn to use great care in attending to these particulars.*

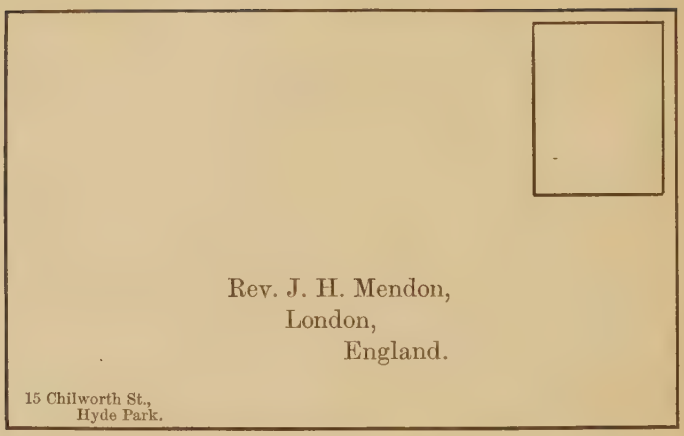
Examples of Addressed Envelopes.

If not called for in 10 days, return to
Robert J. Tracy,
412 Filbert St.,
San Francisco, California.

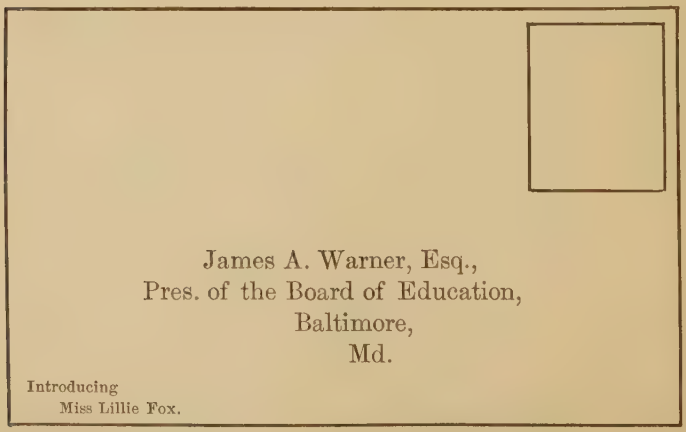
Miss Jean McCormick,
Milford,
Jefferson Co.,
Wisconsin.

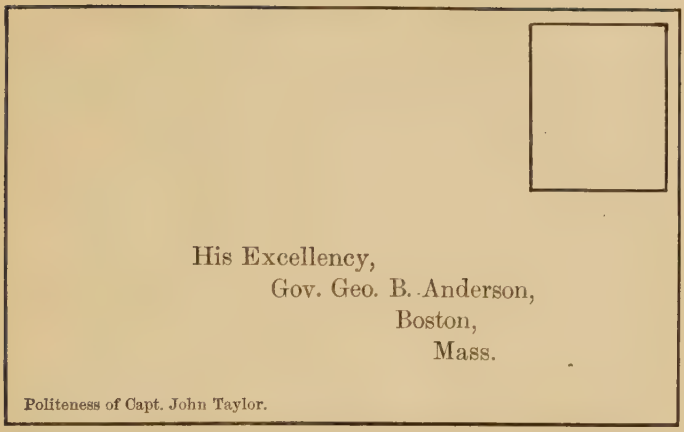
℅ Mr. E. T. Marsh.

Note.—*The mark* [℅] *is a business abbreviation for* **in care of.**



REMARK.—*In directing foreign letters, and in cases where the direction is long, put in the body of the direction only the items necessary for the information of postmasters in sending the letter to the right town or city. The points needed only by the messenger to deliver the letter, may be placed in the lower left hand corner. The name of the county is sometimes written in the same position.*





Exercise :

a. Address two envelopes to friends living in the country or in small towns.

b. Address two envelopes to persons living in San Francisco or some other large city in the United States.

c. Address a letter to a person in Paris.

d. Address a letter to your County Superintendent, introducing one of your classmates.

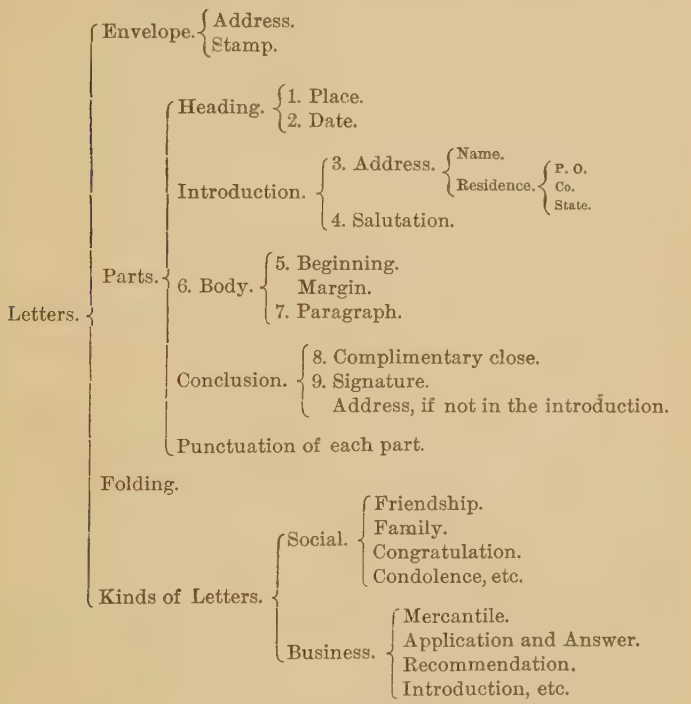
e. Direct a letter to some one residing outside of California, in such a manner that it will be returned to you if the owner is not found.

The Letter.

DIRECTION.—Examine the different parts of the following model of a letter on ordinary note paper. Notice the position, capitalization, and punctuation of each item:

1. *Madison, Wis.,*
2. *June 23, 1887.*
3. *Prof. C. E. Main,*
3. *1496 Wabash Ave.,*
3. *Chicago, Ill.*
4–5. *Dear Sir,—It gives me pleasure to*
6. *inform you that at a regular meeting of*
6. *the Agassiz Society, held in this city June*
6. *22d, you were unanimously elected an hon-*
6. *orary member.*
6–7. *The members of the society hope that*
6. *it may be convenient for you to meet with*
6. *them frequently, and to give them the valu-*
6. *able aid of your wider research and knowledge.*
8. *Respectfully yours,*
9. *James R. Lathrop,*
9. *Recording Secretary.*

The figures in the following abstract correspond to the parts of the preceding letter, as numbered on the margin. Learn the names of the different parts of a letter so that you can readily apply them to the model.



I. The Heading.

Begin the heading on the first ruled line of note paper, and a little to the left of the middle of the page, so that the words need not be crowded. If short, the heading may occupy but one line. If two lines are needed, the date should be placed on the second, and should begin farther to the right than the name of the place. In writing from a city where there is a free mail delivery, give the door number,

the name of the street, of the city, and of the state. If living in a hotel or other large building, give the name of the building and number of the room. Begin each important word with a capital, set off each item by the comma, and close the heading with a period. The door number, the day of the month, and the year are the only items in a letter that should be written in figures, except, in some cases, a sum of money.

Exercise:

a. Write the following headings according to the above model and directions:

1. 1796 pacific St. portland oregon july 4 1885.
2. Commercial hotel chicago ill. Aug 9 1880.
3. Room 27 Russ house san francisco cal aug 7. 1876.

b. Write three headings of your own from different places.

II. The Introduction.

1. Address.—A title of courtesy, such as *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Miss*, or *Esq.*, and professional, literary, or military titles, such as *Dr.*, *Prof.*, *A. M.*, and *Col.*, should be given in the address. Two of such titles should not be joined to one name. *Mr. Henry Sawyer, Esq.*, is incorrect.

Remark.—*In addressing a clergyman, the double title* **Rev. Mr.** *may be used, the* **Mr.** *being a substitute for the Christian name, when not known. The husband's title is sometimes written after the title* **Mrs.**; *as,* **Mrs. Dr. Cross.**

When two literary or professional titles are added to one name, one must not include the other. The higher title implies the lower. Why is the following incorrect? *Rev. Dr. Morse, D.D.*

Begin the address on the next line or the second below the heading, on the left side of the page, at the marginal line.* It may occupy two or three lines, each lower line

* **Note.** The width of the margin should be from one fourth of an inch (on narrow note paper) to one inch (on large letter paper).

beginning a little farther to the right than the previous one. Capitalize and punctuate the items and abbreviations in the same manner as the heading, closing with a period.

In all ordinary business letters not official, the address should be the same in substance as that upon the envelope, and should be placed at the top of the letter, but in family letters and letters to intimate friends, the address may be placed at the left, on the next line below the signature, and in official letters should always be written there.

2. Salutation.—The style of salutation depends upon the station of the person addressed, the writer's relative position, and the degree of intimacy existing between them.

Dear Sir, *Dear Madam,* *Dear Miss,*

are used in mere business letters or in addressing ordinary acquaintances;

My dear Sir, My dear Miss Rider, etc.,

in addressing friends;

My dear Sister, *Dear Alice,* *Dearest Brother,*

near relatives and dear friends.

Begin the salutation a little to the right of the marginal line, under the first letter of the second line, if the address occupies three lines; if but two lines, about an inch farther to the right than the beginning of the second line; and if but one, about an inch to the right of the marginal line.

The first word of the salutation and every noun in it should begin with a capital.

The salutation should be followed by the comma; or, if the body of the letter begins on the same line, by the comma and the dash. In more formal letters, a colon may be used.

Exercise:

Observe the following models, and then arrange the remaining introductions:

MODEL 1:

J. H. Wilson, Esq.,
567 Broadway,
New York.
Dear Sir,—Your favor, etc.

MODEL 2:

Messrs. Walter Moffatt & Sons,
Rochester, Minnesota.
Gentlemen,—I am requested, etc.

MODEL 3:

Miss Winifred Norton,
Dear Madam,
Accept my sincere thanks for
the basket of lovely flowers, etc.

1. Hon. D. D. Goodall 893 F street Sacramento Cal. Dear Sir The goods shipped upon, etc.

2. Mrs. Eliza Mason Trenton N. J. My dear Friend.

3. Master Willie Tubbs Dear Willie I was greatly pleased to receive your interesting account of the, etc.

4. Write three other introductions, of your own, to letters of friendship or to business letters.

Very formal letters, such as invitations and their answers, announcements, etc., are in the third person, and have no introduction. When short, they should begin below the first ruled line, or, so as to occupy, when finished, the middle of the page.

INVITATION.

Mr. and Mrs. Hall request the pleasure of Mr. Wright's company at a social gathering, on Tuesday evening, at eight o'clock.
1210 Elm Ave., Nov. 8.

ACCEPTING THE INVITATION.

Mr. Wright accepts with much pleasure the kind invitation of Mr. and Mrs. Hall to be present at their residence next Tuesday evening.

DECLINING THE INVITATION.

Mr. Wright presents his compliments to Mr. and Mrs. Hall, with regrets that it will be impossible, by reason of a previous engagement, to accept their kind invitation for Tuesday evening.

III. THE BODY OF THE LETTER.

This should generally begin on the line under the salutation, just at the right, or, when the address is long, on the

same line, with a dash between the first word and the end of the salutation. (See Models 1 and 2 above.)

The body of the letter should begin with a capital, should be neatly and clearly written, and should be divided into paragraphs. There should always be a narrow margin at the left of each page, but not at the right.

No blots are allowable.

REMARK.—*A* **paragraph** *contains one sentence or a group of connected sentences in the same line of thought. The beginning of a new subject or a new line of thought should be indicated by a new paragraph. Avoid, however, dividing a letter into more paragraphs than are necessary.*

Exercise:

Write a letter to your teacher giving an account of the manner in which you spent your last birthday. Write a full heading and a full introduction, and have at least two paragraphs in the body of the letter.

IV. THE CONCLUSION.

The *conclusion* should contain the *complimentary close* and the *signature*.

The *complimentary close* should be written on the next line below the end of the body of the letter. If long, it may occupy more than one line. It should begin with a capital and end with a comma. Generally the writer's signature, in full, should be written on the next line below the complimentary close, near the right hand edge of the sheet. It should end with a period.

REMARK.—*When the address is not in the introduction nor in the body of a formal letter, it should be written below the signature, at the left.*

Like the forms of salutation, the forms of complimentary close vary with the style of letter, the degree of intimacy or formality, etc. The following are a few of the forms:

Social Letters.—Your friend, Your sincere friend, Your loving daughter, Lovingly yours, Yours heartily and affectionately, Now and ever yours, etc.

Note.—*Let your good sense and your feelings dictate the choice of forms. Do not capitalize any word but the first and the word* **Sir,** *when used. See below.*

Business Letters.—Yours respectfully, Yours truly, Very truly yours, etc.

Official.—I have the honor to be, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

CHARLES D. BABCOCK.

Very respectfully,

Your most obedient servant,

FRANK WARNER.

The signature should consist of the writer's full name or of the initials of the Christian name and the whole of the surname. When a lady addresses a stranger, she should, in parenthesis, prefix her title (*Mrs.* or *Miss*) to the signature; thus,

(Miss) Ellen E. Jones.

The close and signature should be arranged like the heading and introduction, so as to present a regular downward slope toward the right.

Exercise:

Arrange the following conclusions properly:

1. Believe me, dear girl ever your sincere friend Helen L. Gibson.
2. I am Sir yours very respectfully Waldo Thompson.
3. Your loving daughter Gertrude Miller.
4. Very sincerely, your friend Robert Hunt.
5. Write a suitable conclusion for a letter to your father or mother, another to your teacher, and one to an intimate friend or a schoolmate.

Folding the Letter.

The envelope should be of a size to match the paper. If the envelope is square, with note paper to match (twice the size of the envelope), but one folding is necessary—to bring the top and the bottom together, with the heading inside.

If the length of the paper is more than twice the width of the envelope, and the width of the paper less than the

length of the envelope, fold the bottom edge up about one third of the length of the sheet, then turn the top down in the same manner and press the folds neatly.

Sometimes it is necessary to fold the sheet lengthwise, but in all cases care should be taken to make the *folds straight* and the *edges even*.

The letter should be folded and inserted in the envelope in such a manner that when taken out and unfolded, it will bring the heading up and the first page before the reader's eye.

Exercises:

a. Practice folding and inserting the letters you have already written, or blank sheets of paper.

b. Write a complete letter covering not less than two pages of note paper, to some absent relative or friend, describing your day's work at school. After it has been criticised by your teacher, put it in an envelope directed properly, place a stamp on the envelope, and send the letter to the post office.

Cautions.—*Business letters should be short and to the point. In writing to a stranger, give your address in full.*

Business Letter.

Trenton, N. J., Dec. 4, 1886.

Messrs. Brooks & Stevens,
149 Park Place, N. Y.

Dear Sirs,—Please send by mail, as soon as convenient, the following:

1 copy Scribner's Writing Book, No. 3,	$ .10
2 copies Whittier's Poems, Household Ed., cloth,	4.
1 copy Dickens' Barnaby Rudge, Globe Ed., cloth,	1.

Total amount, at prices named in your catalogue—five dollars and ten cents, for which amount find P. O. order inclosed.

Respectfully yours,
GEO. R. WOODMAN.

Letter of Introduction.

Los Angeles, May 20, 1887.

My dear Clara,—It gives me great pleasure to introduce to you my friend and fellow townswoman, Mrs. Ellen Walters, who is an earnest and highly esteemed member of the C. L. S. C. of this city. Mrs. Walters visits your city in pursuit of health and recreation, but she will be glad to make the acquaintance of a few persons of culture and refinement. Any attention you may show her will be esteemed as a personal favor by

Your old friend,

ANNIE L. FIELD.

Miss Clara Owens,
Santa Cruz, Cal.

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as present

Past Ind. expresses being or action
past

Future Ind. expresses being or action
to come.

Present Per. Ind. expresses being or
action as completed at the present
time.

Past Per. Ind. expresses being or action
as completed at some past time

Future Per. Ind. expresses being or action
to be completed at some future

is said.

is said of the subject.

receives the act.

modify

10. Kind of Sentences in form
Simple, Complex, & Compound.

11. A Simple sentence contains one verb and one subject.

12. A Complex sentence contains one principle sentence and two or more dependent sentences.

13. A Compound sentence contains two or more principle sentences and one or more dependent sentences.

14 Kind of sentences in use
1. Dec
2. Int
3. Imp.
4. Exclam

The Ind. mode is that form of the verb which simply indicates declares or interrogates.
"Birds are good"

Tense is the variation of the form of the verb to express the time of being, action or state

Mode is the difference in manner of asserting

Comparison is the variation of the adjective to express quality in different degrees.

Weak Verb

Regular verbs, are those that form past tense and past part. by adding d or ed to the present.

Strong Verb

Irregular verbs, are those that do not form the past tense & past part. by adding e or ed to the present.

The Positive degree is that expressed by the adjective in its simplest form as large; little;

The Superlative degree is that which expresses the highest or lowest grade of an adjective; as largest, least.

Mode is that modefaction of the ver
which denotes the manner of asserti
the action state or being.
Imperative Mode asserts the action s
being as a command or an entre

Comparative good
Positive better
Superlative best

Use few and a little when
meaning some.

Conjugation is the regular arran
ment of all the forms of the ver

Potential mode asserts the.

1. Power
2. Liberty
3. Possibil
4. Necessity
5. Duty
6. Permission

future to be
to have be